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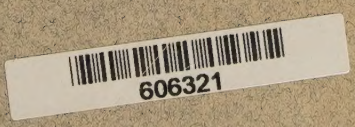
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ACCOUNTS AND PAPERS:

THIRTY-TWO VOLUMES.

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~~DIPLOMATIC SERVICE~~;

INDUSTRIAL CLASSES (FOREIGN COUNTRIES).

Session

8 *February* —— 10 *August* 1870.

VOL. LXVI.

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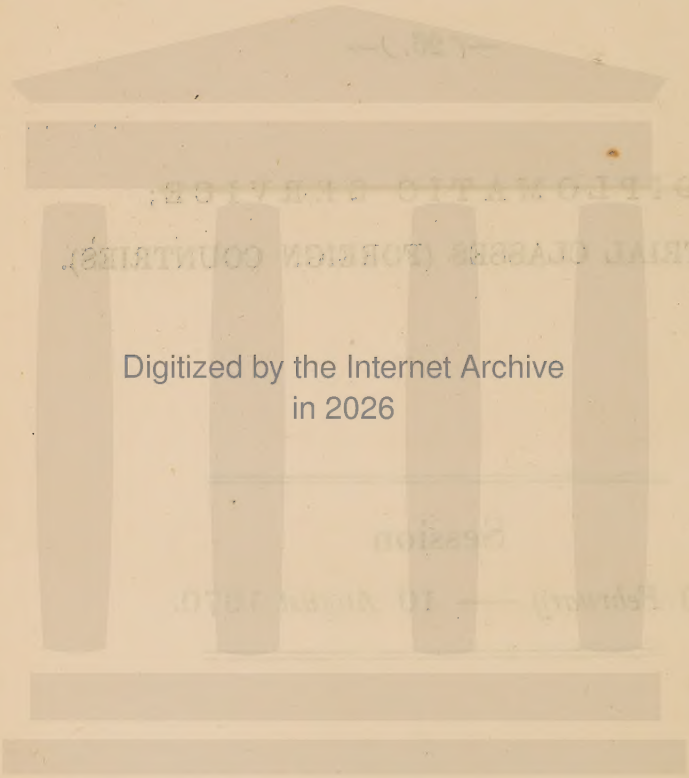

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The folio portion of this Volume will be found in the preceding Volume LXV. The papers are as follows.

[C.49] Diplomatic Services - Report on.

[C.50] Report on Diplomatic & Consular Expenditure

[C.65] Further Return.

[C.69] Correspondence respecting Diplomatic and Consular Expenditure in China Japan & Siam.

381. Memorandum of Estimate for Legation & Consular Buildings in China & Japan.

Contents of this Volume

[C.68] Reports from Her Majesty's Diplomatic and Consular Agents abroad respecting the condition of the Industrial Classes in Foreign Countries.

REPORTS

FROM

HER MAJESTY'S DIPLOMATIC AND CONSULAR AGENTS ABROAD,

RESPECTING THE

CONDITION

OF THE

INDUSTRIAL CLASSES

IN

FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Her Majesty's Command.
1870.

LONDON:
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1870.

[C 68]

CONTENTS.

	Page
Circular addressed to Her Majesty's Representatives abroad, April 30, 1869 ..	1

Reports in answer to preceding Circular.

Country.	Residence.	Name.	Date.	Page.
Austria	Vienna	Mr. Lytton	Dec. 31, 1869	521
Baden, Grand Duchy of ..	Carlsruhe ..	Mr. Baillie	Jan. 18, 1870	260
Belgium	Brussels	Mr. Pakenham ..	Dec. 18, 1869	142
Brazil	Rio de Janeiro ..	Mr. Cobbold	Jan. 23, 1870	519
Denmark ..	Copenhagen ..	Mr. Strachey	Feb. 8, ——	502
France	Paris	Mr. Malet	Dec. 20, 1869	383
Greece	Athens	Mr. Gould	Jan. 27, 1870	495
Hanse Towns ..	Hamburgh ..	Mr. Ward	Nov. 30, 1869	11
Netherlands ..	The Hague ..	Mr. Locock	Dec. 10, ——	16
Peru	Lima	Mr. Jerningham ..	Oct. 27, ——	3
Portugal ..	Lisbon	Mr. Doria	Dec. 18, ——	150
Prussia	Berlin	Mr. Petre	Dec. 8, ——	29
Russia	St. Petersburgh ..	..	Jan. 12, 1870	301
Saxony	Dresden	Dr. Reutsch	Dec. 24, 1869	187
Spain	Madrid	Mr. Ffrench	Jan. 15, 1870	311
Sweden	Stockholm ..	Mr. Jocelyn	Dec. 31, 1869	158
Switzerland ..	Berne	Mr. Bonar	Jan. 6, 1870	270
Turkey	Constantinople ..	Mr. Watson	Dec. 25, 1869	230
	Monastir ..	Consul Calvert ..	Nov. 23, ——	240
	Salonica	Consul Wilkinson ..	Sept. 13, ——	248
	Brussa	Vice-Consul Maling ..	Nov. 24, ——	251
	Aleppo	Consul Skene	Oct. 21, ——	256
	Beyrout	Consul-Gen. Eldridge	Oct. 30, ——	257
	Smyrna	Consul Cumberbatch .	Dec. 3, ——	259
United States ..	Washington ..	Mr. Ford	Dec. 31, ——	317
Wurtemberg ..	Stuttgardt ..	Mr. Phipps	Dec. 31, ——	209

Index 577

Circular addressed to Her Majesty's Representatives abroad.

My Lord,
Sir,

Foreign Office, April 30, 1869.

I HAVE observed with pleasure the care and ability with which Her Majesty's Secretaries of Legation have drawn up their Reports, and which have secured for those documents notice and approval on their being made public in this country. These Reports, however, relate, as you are aware, generally to matters of an economical and financial character, but there are other subjects on which the Secretaries will be in a position to furnish information on points connected with questions which have great public interest at the present moment.

The points to which I allude are those which connect themselves with the position of the artizan and industrial classes in foreign countries; such, for instance, as the proportion which the number of those so employed bears to the other classes, the description of houses or lodgings generally occupied by them, the nature of their engagements with employers, the rates of wages received by them (explained in British currency), and any information as to the state of the labour markets, explaining whether they present openings for the introduction of labour from without, or the reverse.

Information on these points will be most useful in this country as exhibiting the conditions of labour in other countries when compared with those which exist in the United Kingdom, and as serving to indicate possible openings of which the skill and enterprise of the labouring classes may take advantage.

I have accordingly to request that you will direct the

attention of the Secretary to your Legation to these subjects, and state to him that it is my wish to receive from him a Report on the subject. In order, however, that the information to be comprised in such a Report may be as complete and accurate as possible, I shall be satisfied if these Reports are forwarded so as to reach this office not later than the close of the current year, in time to be presented to Parliament in a collected form at the opening of the Session of 1870; and I have only to add that it will generally be desirable, in compiling them, to embody any information collected from printed documents on the subject, rather than to forward the documents themselves, which, if published with the Reports, must materially increase bulk and involve the expense of translations.

I am, &c.

(Signed) CLARENDON.

ANSWERS TO PRECEDING CIRCULAR.

No. 1.

Mr. Jerningham to the Earl of Clarendon.—(*Received December* 2.)

My Lord, *Lima, October* 27, 1869.

With reference to a Circular dated 30th April last, which I received from your Lordship manifesting a desire that a Report should be furnished on certain points connected with the position of the artizan and industrial classes in Peru enumerated in your Lordship's despatch, I have the honour to state that, owing to the kindness of two gentlemen of my acquaintance—British subjects, one of them the Manager of the Lima Railway, a long resident here, and the other Chief Superintendent of the Gas Company's Works, and an engineer employed at times by the Peruvian Government—I have been able to collect what ought to be considered reliable information, as these gentlemen have been in constant communication with the artizan and labouring classes, British and Peruvian, in the Lima and Callao district.

I therefore beg to forward copies of two memorandums which they have obligingly sent me: first, one on the state of the artizan and industrial classes of British subjects resident in Peru, and chiefly in Lima and Callao; and, secondly, a memorandum respecting wages, nature of engagements, cost of living, lodging, and aptitude of native workmen, as well as the state of the labour market, which is also touched upon in the first memorandum.

In the paper on native labour the writer puts down the ordinary pay of a "peon" at 1 dollar (8 rials per day), whereas I have been told some receive only 6 rials; but then those who only earn this sum may probably be the commonest class of labourers. However, even this

is not bad pay when their food costs them but 3 or 4 rials, and their clothing, in this mild climate, is of an inexpensive character, and they find lodging in the numerous "callejones" of this city expressly destined by various house proprietors for the poorer classes, where many reside with their wives, who themselves ply different callings, such as washing, cooking, sewing, and manufacturing cakes and sweetmeats which they sell about the streets; in many cases, the women, more particularly the blacks and "Zambas" earning, if they are industrious, fair and proportionate remuneration. The Indian peasants likewise, especially the women in and about Lima, appear to be well up to their own interests in money matters, and evince greater activity and keenness in selling their produce and effects, and keeping what they fetch, than the Creole population, who perhaps aspire to more luxury and diversions than the indigenous race.

Taking everything into consideration there are few towns of 100,000 inhabitants where the lower native classes, with what they really require, are better off than in Lima.

With respect to the middle and upper classes, I doubt whether they are proportionately so well circumstanced, as many have large families and have to pay high rents, whilst the price of living respectably is greater than it was formerly; and were it not for the guano, which enables the Government to make loans and spend a great deal of money which filters through the veins of the Republic, and more especially of this city, there would be a good many of the better class of people in Lima in an impoverished condition. As for the position of the foreign mechanic in Lima and Callao, if he is industrious, careful, and sober, and not overburned with children, it is an advantageous one, as the wages he earns are high. But Mr. Prentice in his memorandum, says:—"The demand for mechanics is still of limited extent;" and when they are wanted they are generally contracted for in England or in the United States and brought out.

There are cases when mechanics, chiefly in the plumber line, ceasing to be journeymen, have set up on their own account and drive a very good trade.

The Water Company, established nine or ten years

ago, called into action the above kind of work, and the city being abundantly supplied with water, householders that could afford it had it brought into their residences, and the plumbers have had accordingly plenty to do, and will have probably for some little time,—people becoming daily more alive to the comfort and economy of having plenty of water at hand instead of having to purchase it of the water-carrier, which used to be quite an "institution" in Lima.

However, there must be a limit to the demand for plumber work, especially as there appears now to be plenty of hands engaged here in this business. As for field and out-of-door labour on the coast of Peru, the climate, as Mr. Prentice (the writer) says, is inimical to Europeans; they get ague and yellow fever (when that reigns), and this class of immigration of British subjects is not to be recommended.

As for artizans, when they are wanted they are sent for and come out under contract, and any emigration of that class hither on their own account would entail on them inconvenience and probably much disappointment.

Not speaking the language would of itself be a great drawback, and if mechanics and others come out here to look for work without the knowledge of Spanish, they would probably find their small means exhausted and themselves in distress before they obtained the kind of employment to which they might aspire.

I have, &c.

(Signed) WM. STAFFORD JERNINGHAM.

Inclosure 1 in No. 1.

Notes on the State of the Artizan and Industrial Classes of British Subjects resident in Peru, and chiefly in Lima and Callao.

Trade or Class.	Daily Wages.					
	Peruvian Currency.		British Currency.			
	$	$	*s.*	*d.*		*s.*
a. Machinists and engine drivers ..	3½	to 6	10	6	to	18
Boiler-makers, ironfounders, and smiths	4	6	12	0		18
b. Brass-finishers, gas-meter makers, and gasfitters	3½	5	10	6		15
Plumbers	3½	5	10	6		15
c. Carpenters (house)	3	4	9	0		12
Masons and bricklayers	2½	5	7	6		15
Common labourers	1¼	2	3	9		6

The greater part of those marked (*a*), and nearly all of those marked (*b*), come originally from England under contract. Those marked (*c*) come mostly from Australia, California, and Chile, in search of employment, and the common labourers are generally discharged or fugitive sailors, stokers, &c.

Nature of Engagements.—Those contracted in England are generally engaged for periods of from two to five years. The principal employers of foreign (English) labour are the Government, the Steam Navigation Company, gas and water companies, estate owners, and owners of machine shops and foundries.

Those in Government employ generally receive rather higher wages, but have no other advantages, and are not always paid with due regularity.

Those contracted by private companies, if not paid so highly, are generally allowed half-pay during sickness, with medical attendance and medicine.

Social Condition.—Those who are unmarried (about one-third of the whole), when they continue steady and industrious, generally succeed well, and may save money. Their lodging, a single room, costs from 6 to 10 dollars per month, and they board outside at from 6 to 8 rials (equal to 2*s.* 3*d.* to 3*s.*) per day. On the whole, their position here is, or may be, quite equal to that which they occupied at home. Those who have families are not so well off; their difficulties increase in proportion to the number of their children, and when this is large they require to exercise very great economy only to pay their way. Their houses too frequently consist only of two apartments, of from 150 to 230 square feet each, for which they pay from 8 to 12 dollars, or from 1*l.* 4*s.* to 1*l.* 16*s.* per month. Houses containing two or three apartments, with small yard and kitchen, cost from 15 to 25 dollars, or 2*l.* 5*s.* to 3*l.* 15*s.* per month. The houses of this class seldom have the appearance of comfort to be found in their houses in England; they convey rather the idea of a struggle, and it is to be feared that, except where the parents possess an unusual amount of energy and principle, they, and especially their children, fall in the social scale.

As to the demand for labour,—almost any mechanic, being steady, may obtain remunerative employment, but the demand is still of limited extent. For agricultural and all kind of out-door "labourer's work" there has

been, since the abolition of slavery, a very large demand,—unlimited, if the resources of the country be taken into account; but the obstacle to this is, that the climate of the coast is inimical to Europeans employed in out-door labour.

For the class suitable as domestic servants, cooks, washerwomen, &c., there is also an abundant field, but in the existing state of the country, and keeping in view the prospects of the individual, this class of immigration is not to be recommended.

In short, this country is not to be recommended to English emigrants looking for a permanent home, and an illustration of this is the fact, that certainly not 5 per cent. of all the foreigners, English, French, or German, who come here, remain of their own accord.

P.S.—The ordinary hours of labour are from 7 A.M. till 5 P.M., less one hour in the middle of the day, *i. e.*, nine hours per day.

The rate of exchange is taken at 3*s.* to the dollar, although for the last few weeks it has been at 3*s.* 1*d.*

Inclosure 2 in No. 1.

Memorandum as to Wages, &c., of Peruvian Artizans.

THE industry of Peru is confined to comparatively few branches, but the workmen receive fair remuneration, and there is always constant employment for steady and competent hands.

The proportion of the artizan class, however, in this country as compared with the rest of the population, is very small indeed. I should think that in Lima, taking the number of inhabitants at 100,000, there are not more than 5,000 engaged in skilled labour or artizan work.

The upper and middle classes, when they do not subsist upon the interest of acquired capital, derive the means of living in some way or other from Government employ, and the lower classes are almost entirely dependent upon ordinary labour, either of an agricultural or town character.

The ordinary pay of a "peon," or day labourer, is

1 dollar (about 3*s.* sterling) per day; sometimes, if the work is of an arduous kind, such as railway work, the remuneration is 1½ dollars (4*s.* 6*d.* sterling) per day. As the clothing of a "peon" is of a very inexpensive character in this climate, and his necessary food does not cost more than 3 or 4 reals (1*s.* 1½*d.* or 1*s.* 6*d.* sterling) a day, those who choose to work are never in want; indeed the difficulty here is to get continuous labour for any purpose; "peons" can seldom be relied upon to work more than four or five days a-week, and, as a class, they are generally idle and improvident.

The foregoing rules of labour apply more especially to iron-work.

In the agricultural district around Lima ordinary field labourer's pay is 6 rials (2*s.* 3*d.* sterling) per day.

These men can seldom be depended upon to work more than five days in the week, and the number of feast days during the year, when no work is done, reduces still further their effective labour.

This evil, the want of sufficient and reliable hands for country work, is a very great one; and although it has been to some extent mitigated during the last twelve or fifteen years by the frequent introduction of Chinese coolies to the large estates, it still subsists and is one of the principal causes that retard the agricultural progress of the country. Before enumerating the various branches of workmanship carried on in Lima, it may be proper first to mention that the Government, with laudable anxiety to promote the industrial advancement of the Peruvian youth, established in 1858, at great cost, the present School of Arts. The premises are large, and are filled with all the appliances of a first-rate machinery and educational engineering school; it is entirely supported at the Government expense, and is capable of containing about 200 persons.

The scholars are housed and fed at the national cost, and such as wish to send their sons find no difficulty in securing the necessary presentations from the Government.

The machinery and implements of the establishment have been imported almost wholly from France, and the studies of the *alumni* are presided over by a French Director.

The school, notwithstanding the snpport it receives,

has never been in a flourishing condition; it has at present about 70 scholars, and this is the maximum number it has ever had. The discipline exercised within this establishment is of a very loose character, and so far it may, I think, be stated that the school has not been availed of by those for whose benefit it was founded, nor has it exercised any apparent influence in creating a taste amongst the youth of the country for the engineering and mechanical arts.

There is another establishment in Lima, the "Fabrica de Tocuyos," a factory for the manufacture of cotton goods (domestics), which was established many years ago under Government protection. A coarse kind of cotton fabric is made there, which is sold in this country. The Government, to assist native industry, as it was termed, placed a heavy duty upon the introduction of foreign domestics, and the factory has in consequence been maintained. It is in the charge of a Peruvian gentleman, who employs some 50 or 60 Chinese workmen, who are paid at the rate of 4 dollars (12*s.*) per month. This branch of industry could not be continued were ordinary wages to be paid, as, notwithstanding the duties, the common cotton goods of England and the United States can be imported to compete successfully with the native manufacture.

The ordinary branches of industry pursued by workmen of this country may be classed as follows :—

The Turners and Machinists.—All the workshops in this district which employ such hands have been established and are conducted by foreigners, principally English and American. The workmen engaged are for the most contracted in England and the States, and brought to the country under engagement usually for three or four years, but in all these shops there are Peruvian workmen and apprentices; the wages of the former are 3 dollars (9*s.*) per day, and the latter 1 to 1½ dollars per day.

Blacksmiths.—A first-rate English workman often receives 4 dollars (12*s.*) per day; the wages of Peruvian blacksmiths are from 2½ to 3 dollars per day.

Carpenters.—The general wages to workmen of this country are from 2 to 3 dollars per day. This is rather an extensive branch of native industry, and Peruvian workmen are quite equal to foreigners in this department.

Upholsterers.—The best establishments of this nature in Lima are conducted by Frenchmen and Germans. Peruvian workmen are employed, and the daily wages are about 2 dollars.

Tailors and Shoemakers.—Native workmen are largely employed in these branches; the general rate of wages is 2 dollars per day.

Tinsmiths.—There is a great deal of this work done in Lima, and the Peruvian workmen are almost solely employed. The wages of journeymen are 2 dollars per day.

Painters.—Native workmen get 2 dollars per day. There are very few English or foreign workmen of this class.

Masons, Bricklayers.—Good workmen of the country receive 3 dollars per day.

Carving and Gilding and Embroidery Work.—There is a considerable trade in this branch, and it is almost wholly in the hands of Peruvian workmen, who receive 3 dollars per day.

Saddlery Work.—This is an extensive branch of industry, and one in which native workmen are largely employed; the daily wages are from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 dollars.

Bakers.—Receive 2 dollars per day.

Silver Work.—This is an important department of industry in Lima; the wages of good workmen are $2\frac{1}{2}$ and 3 dollars per day.

Plumbers' Work.—This work in Lima is almost exclusively done by foreign artizans. The establishments here get men from England and the States, and Peruvians are only employed as apprentices or assistants at wages from 1 to 2 dollars per day.

The condition of steady good workmen in Peru is one of comfort and independence. The labour market is not overstocked, and those who are industrious find constant employment, and if they are provident they may save money. There is a good deal of the patriarchal in the mode of living in Peru. Members of a family reside under the same roof after marriage, and the maintenance of a separate establishment is not considered necessary in many cases. Those who are employed on daily work in Lima live for the most part with their families, but rooms for working men are to be had in various quarters of the town at 10 dollars per month. Although there is

no superabundance of skilled artizans in the country, I am of opinion, nevertheless, that there is yet no opening for any notable emigration of workmen from without. In some branches it is found necessary to have English workmen, but when these are required they are contracted for in England and brought out specially. As a rule Peruvian workmen are more manageable, and more temperate and steady in their habits, than English mechanics. They are apt and quick to learn, and, except in the departments of machinery, engineering, plumber-work, &c., they are at present quite as competent workmen as any that come from Europe.

Lima, October 25, 1869.

No. 2.

Mr. Ward to the Earl of Clarendon.—(Received December 6.)

My Lord, *Hamburgh, November* 30, 1869.

I HAVE the honour to transmit to your Lordship herewith a Report on the condition of the artizan and industrial classes in the territory of Hamburgh, in which the questions stated in your Lordship's Circular despatch of the 30th of April last are answered so far as they are applicable to the small territory in question.

I have, &c.

(Signed) JOHN WARD.

Inclosure in No. 2.

Report by Mr. Ward on the Condition of the Artizans and Industrial Classes in Hamburgh.

Hamburgh, November 30, 1869.

THE position of the industrial classes generally within the Republic of Hamburgh is, upon the whole, superior to that of the population of more extensive territories where capital and enterprise are wanting as active means of sustaining the inhabitants. The territory of Hamburgh comprises an area of not more than thirty-five English miles; whilst the city is one of the largest

commercial emporiums of the Continent, as well as the seat of numerous manufactures. Since the beginning of this century several new branches of manufacture have sprung up, and the operations of carriage-building, engineering, ship-building, cabinet-making, meat-curing, sugar-refining, distilling, and brewing are now carried on to a considerable extent here.

The actual population of the city of Hamburgh and of its rural territory, according to the latest census, is 306,507 souls, and the distribution of that population according to their trades and professions is officially stated as follows :—*

Persons employed in manufacturing industry of every description, and their families ..	105,386
Ditto, in wholesale and retail trade, including ditto	60,764
Ditto, in agriculture, including ditto	9,788
Official and professional persons, and those of all other classes, and their families	130,589
Total	306,507

The proportion of the persons employed in manufacturing industry who are artizans not working on their own account is estimated at about one-half, but the official statistics do not give the exact numbers. In trade and commerce the number of actual labourers employed as porters, shippers of goods, and the like, exclusive of clerks, bookkeepers, &c., may be stated to be under one-third of the whole.

The labouring classes in Hamburgh live generally within the boundary of the city and suburbs, where, however, the ground is mostly very valuable, so that rows of small dwellings of about two stories high are built for their accommodation at the back of the houses forming the street, which are reached by long courts of only a few feet in width, and in many cases requiring the ascent and descent of several steps. These houses are divided into small compartments of two or three small rooms each, which are uncomfortable and often unhealthy, yet rarely remain unoccupied. The rent paid for such lodgings is about 5*l.* per annum. The better class of workmen often have two or three larger

* "Statistik des Hamburgischen Staats, zuzammengestellt vom Statistichen Bureau fur direkten Steuer." Hamburgh, 1869.

rooms, for which they pay from 7*l.* to 11*l.* per annum, although the rent amounts to one-fifth or one-sixth of their income. The hiring of dwellings by the week, as in England, is almost unknown here. The usual term of hiring is by the quarter or half-year, subject to a quarter's notice; the rent being payable quarterly or half-yearly. The travelling workmen live mostly in lodging-houses ("Herberge") belonging to their various trades, for which they pay from 9*s.* to 10*s.* 6*d.* per week for board and lodging. Facilities are afforded in these lodging-houses for the hire of tools by those workmen, such as carpenters and cabinet-makers, who are required to furnish their own, and would find it too expensive to transport them from place to place. The charge for the tools required by a house-carpenter is about 4*d.* per week. That the general condition of the industrial classes in Hamburgh as regards their dwellings is far from comfortable, may be inferred from the fact that the average population within the city is 109 persons per Prussian morgen,* and in the suburbs 65 per morgen, while in Berlin the average population is only 29 per morgen.

The greater number of the workmen and artizans of Hamburgh are engaged for weekly wages by verbal agreement, a week's notice on either side being necessary to terminate the same. It is customary, however, in some trade for the men to work for a contract price, in which case the agreement lasts until the particular work is done, an instalment of money being paid to them every week, and the balance settled when the contract is performed.

The rate of wages paid in Hamburgh, although much higher than that prevailing in other parts of Germany, is low when compared either with the wages paid in England, or with the great increase which has taken place of late years in the cost of the necessaries of life. The duration of labour is also longer than that in England, the average period of work per week here being sixty-three hours for artizans generally, without taking into account the occasional work performed on Sunday. The average wages received by skilled workmen amounts to about 45*l.* per annum, and those of an ordinary workman to about 30*l.* per annum.

* One Prussian morgen equal to 2 roods 21 perches English.

The following table contains a statement of the average wages and hours of labour of some of the principal trades of Hamburgh :—

STATISTICS of Trades in Hamburgh as to the Hours of Labour, Rate of Wages, and Number of Persons employed in and dependent on the various Trades.

Trade.	Period of Labour.			Average Wages per Week.		Number of Workmen employed.	Number Dependent on them.
	Average Hours in Week.		Average Weeks in Year.				
	Summer.	Winter.		Summer.	Winter.		
Stonemasons—							
Workmen	66	54	46	s. d. 18 0	s. d. 15 0	2,220	1,749
Labourers				12 6	10 6		
Bricklayers—							
Workmen	66	54	46	18 0	15 0		
Labourers				12 6	10 0		
Carpenters and Joiners—							
Workmen	66	54	48	18 0	15 0	1,737	1,426
Labourers				12 6	10 6		
Painters—							
Workmen	66	54	48	16 6	14 0	716	201
Labourers				12 6	10 6		
Cabinet-makers and polishers.	66		52	21 0		3,314	801
Engineers and Machinists—							
Workmen	60		52	18 0		1,341	2,001
Labourers				15 0			
Iron ship-builders—							
Workmen	60		52	18 0			
Labourers				15 0			
Pianoforte-makers—							
Workmen	63		52	21 0 to 24 0		300	250
Printers—							
Workmen	60		52	18 0	30 0	520	397
Cigar-makers—							
Workmen	65		52	12 0	24 0	2,254	2,036
Lightermen	60		48	21 0		654	297

With respect to the actual state of the labour market in Hamburgh, it may be remarked the the influx of strangers from other parts of Germany is always very great, and that there is seldom any scarcity either of skilled workmen or ordinary labourers, owing to the attractions of higher wages and greater opportunities of amusement than are offered elsewhere. There is always a great number of young unmarried workmen residing in Hamburgh, who, having completed their apprenticeship, follow the German custom of travelling from town to town for two or three years before settling in life. There are Unions attached to nearly every trade in Hamburgh, formed on the so-called Lassalle principle, which Unions have the effect at least of keeping the workmen together, and preventing them from wandering so much as they otherwise would. There are also trade

schools and educational institutes for workmen, which are much frequented and operate very well.

During the last forty years the moral, intellectual, and material condition of the working classes of Hamburgh has greatly improved under the influence of free trade, and of the increased importance of their position in the Republic by the extension of the electoral franchise, which gives every labouring man a vote for political representatives.

The amusements which the workman is able to enjoy are much cheaper in Hamburgh than is the case in England. The character of the people is also different: the German workman can enjoy beer and cigars of very inferior quality, provided they be low in price, and he likes to resort to small theatres and other places of amusement, the admittance to which is very cheap. The German labourer is a lover of music, and often sings part-music and choruses very well. A few years ago drunkenness was quite unknown among this class, but of late the practice of drinking schnapps and other spirituous compounds has prevailed among the foreign workmen residing here, which is likely to have a bad influence upon the workmen in general.

It is satisfactory to learn that many artisans in various trades save money, and that they look to the improvement of their position in the world. The great majority of them are members of Sick and Burial Clubs. They have undoubtedly habits of frugality in spite of the high prices of the principal articles of food, which, as already stated, have greatly increased within the last twenty years. This rise of prices has been the cause of demands for higher wages having lately been heard of, accompanied by strikes, which, although repressed for the moment, may be probably repeated, and be more or less successful.

The workmen and artisans of Hamburgh, as well as their wives and families, are comparatively well clothed, certainly better than persons of the same class in most parts of England. Every workman has two suits of clothes, the one for week days, and the other for use on Sundays and solemn occasions. It should also be borne in mind that the severity of the climate here requires the workmen to possess a great-coat, and throughout the

winter to be more warmly clothed than would be necessary in England.

(Signed) JOHN WARD.

No. 3.

Vice-Admiral Harris to the Earl of Clarendon.—(Received December 13.)

My Lord, *The Hague, December* 10, 1869.

I HAVE the honour to transmit herewith inclosed to your Lordship a Report by Mr. Locock on the condition of the artizan and working classes in this country, as required by your Lordship's Circular of the 30th of April last.

I have, &c.

(Signed) E. A. J. HARRIS.

Inclosure in No. 3.

Report by Mr. Locock on the Condition of the Artizan and Industrial Classes in the Netherlands.

The Hague, December 10, 1869.

WHEN Messrs. Nicholls and Kay made their tour of inspection in Holland in 1838 for the purpose of examining into the condition of the labouring classes, with a view to legislation in Ireland, the former was so struck by the air of comfort and prosperity which he everywhere met, that in his Report to Her Majesty's Government he describes them as enjoying a larger amount of individual comfort than probably existed for the same classes in any other country of Europe. "Nothing," he writes, "can exceed the cleanliness, the personal propriety, and the apparent comfort of the people of Holland. I did not see a house or a fence out of repair, or a garden that was not carefully cultivated." But he does not stop here, for while apparently intending merely to continue the description, he gives,

perhaps unconsciously, the secret of such unwonted happiness. "The Dutch people," he continues, "appear to be strongly attached to their Government, and few countries possess a population in which the domestic and social duties are discharged with such constancy; a scrupulous economy and cautious foresight seem to be the characteristic virtues of every class; to spend their full annual income is accounted a species of crime."

There can be little doubt that if the labouring classes in Holland are prosperous and happy, they owe it to their own patient industry, their provident habits, and their natural contented disposition. Living in a land which owes its very existence to the ingenuity and labour of man, at any moment liable to be called out to work again for their lives and homesteads, they owe little to nature, much to themselves. What they acquire with pain they guard with care. The Dutch labourer, whether in field or town, reflects on the value of his earnings; the energies which a warmer blood and a more impetuous temperament would expend in political excitement, he consecrates to the improvement of his own individual lot; the question of the hour, the news of the day, possess little interest for him; he prefers his Bible to his newspaper, and his family fireside to the public, the reading-room, or the political meeting. Jealous to a degree over the liberty he already possesses, he does not sigh for more, and prefers enjoying in peace the advantages already secured to him, to agitating for others which his fathers did without.

The Dutch artizan can live comfortably and contentedly on what would ill suffice to satisfy the wants of an English labourer. He gets lower wages, he lives in a country where protection is still professed and duties are still high, where the necessities of life are about as dear as in England and the luxuries dearer, and yet his home is happier, and his family healthier than many which could be found elsewhere. Spending less on himself, he has more left for his children, and what he saves in beer he spends in bread.

The usual wages of a skilled artizan, such as a carpenter, joiner, plumber, or smith, may be reckoned in the larger towns of Holland, at about 16*s.* a-week; his wife, perhaps, adds 3*s.* or 4*s.* by taking in washing, and the man himself by working out of hours on odd jobs, often adds another

shilling or two. I imagine a steady family would thus find the united earnings not fall short of 22*s.* a-week. Men whose trades or occupations require less skill are worse paid, unless, indeed, the absence of skill is compensated for by the additional severity of the labour. The firemen or stokers in the gas works at the Hague receive 17*s.* 6*d.* a-week; but for this they have to work in relays of twelve hours at a time, day or night, as the case may be, and seven days in the week, with an additional six hours every Saturday, to secure the weekly rotation of day and night work.

In the smaller towns in the interior of the country, where living is cheaper, house and ground rent low, and skilled labour less in demand, wages are much lower; there an artizan who might earn 15*s.* or 16*s.* a-week in the capital has to content himself with 10*s.* These are the wages often paid to factory hands.

A favourite mode of remuneration for labour is that of paying by piece work. This plan is adopted even on the premises of the employer; thus, a master cabinet maker will furnish all the materials for making a table; the table will be made in his own workshop under his eye; but whether his workman is industrious or idle will make no difference to him, for he will pay him the same sum on its completion.

Another very general mode of payment is by the hour instead of by the week. In this case the artizan naturally earns more in the summer, when the days are long, than he can do in winter. The pay varies according to the nature of the labour, skilled or otherwise. The rates of from 2*d.* to 4*d.* per hour embrace the principal variations.

Each skilled workman is required to find his own tools, with the exception of those of an immoveable nature, such as lathes, presses, and machinery of all kinds.

The hours of labour in the summer are generally twelve, including intervals for two or three meals. These consist of breakfast, at about 8, dinner about midday, and occasionally tea towards the evening. Half an hour is considered enough for the first and last, but dinner is a more important matter and occupies, with its subsequent repose and pipe, an hour or an hour and a half.

Breakfast consists of a sandwich made of a thin slice

of a peculiar highly-flavoured but not unpalatable black bread between two thicker pieces of brown or white bread and butter, and coffee, with milk and sugar. Dinner always begins with potatoes, after which comes a mess of carrots, turnips, or other vegetables, boiled together in a liberal allowance of fat; fish when in season, and it is followed by a cup of tea. Beer is not drunk at meals as with us; there is plenty of water, and the gin-shop, if at a convenient distance, is doubtless occasionally visited before returning to work. The evening meal resembles the morning one. Workmen bring their food with them and cook it on the premises of their employer, making some trifling payment for fuel, the use of kitchen utensils, &c., or they return, when not at too great a distance, to their own homes for dinner, or they frequent the cheap cook-shops expressly provided for the lower classes, where, for the small sum of 2*d.*, they get their fill of greasy potatoes and other vegetables.

Meat is rarely tasted by the working classes in Holland. It forms no part of the bill of fare, either for the man or his family; if ever indulged in, it is at the Sunday meal, when the whole household share the delicacy.

There is no peculiar dress for the artizan, like as in France and some other Continental countries. He is well and warmly clothed in coat, waistcoat, and trousers, with a cloth cap, and under-clothes of coarse material. The women have more variety and peculiarity in their dress, the costume of one province often varying from that of another; but they are all sufficiently well clothed. Both sexes occasionally wear the wooden shoes or sabots.

The Netherlander is even more particular than the Britisher about having a house to himself, and the feeling extends to the poorest artizan. Hence, the miniature houses which are to be seen here and there in every old town, and which strike the stranger as so peculiar. There are instances where the width of the whole house barely exceeds that of the street door; and where a good-sized bed would certainly extend from wall to wall.

In every town one meets with blocks or rows of houses built expressly for the working classes. They

are mostly on the same model, the size not allowing of any great variety. The more modern have been built in rows, near the outside of the towns; the older are to be seen in the more crowded parts. Passing down a street, one notices here and there a narrow passage about 4 feet wide, which at first sight might be taken for a backway to one of the adjoining houses. But entering by this narrow passage one finds oneself between a double row of neat brick houses, inclosing a garden divided off by low hedges or palings, into a number of small plots three or four paces square, each one belonging to the house opposite to it. There may be a dozen houses on each side, all precisely alike, and forming a single property. A common pump is somewhere to be seen, probably in the centre of the inclosure. The garden plot of each house, though so small, must be accounted valuable, for few are the houses of this class which are without something of the kind; they serve as drying-grounds for the clothes of the family, or for the pots and pans, which are being continually cleaned, and in which the Dutch housewife takes so much pride.

On entering one of the houses, one stands in the middle of a room about 15 feet square provided with a single window in front; a chimney in one of the side walls is fitted with a small stove, the property of the tenant, which sufficiently answers the purposes of heating and cooking. In another wall are one or two cupboards, the crockery-closet and pantry of the establishment; while a larger recess, fitted with a bed, and concealed by a curtain, forms the sleeping-place of the parents of the family. The floor is generally boarded, though not always; the walls, about 8 or 9 feet high, are plastered and white-washed, unless papered by the tenant. The furniture in the room is generally sufficient for its size, and carefully kept. There is no back-door or yard. In a corner of the room is a steep, narrow staircase, leading to the room above, where sleep the younger members of the family. There is in one corner of the upper room, a closet communicating with the main drain. An air of order and propriety pervades the whole establishment, and gives evidence that neatness and cleanliness are regarded among the first of the household virtues.

For a house such as I have described, the rent is about 2*s.* or 2*s.* 6*d.* a-week in a town like the Hague.

In the small country towns it is naturally less. Such houses are supposed to return 10 per cent. to their owners, for which some deduction must be made for taxes and repairs.

I have given here a sketch of the best kind of house found in the interior of the town, in those blocks or rows which have been built in accordance with the present town regulations, requiring that an open space be left in front of each house. There are numerous dwellings of older construction crowded into the more populous parts of towns, especially such as Amsterdam and Rotterdam, which do not come nearly up to the standard; here there is to be found neither garden-plot nor yard; a high brick wall rises within 3 or 4 feet of the windows; an open or badly-closed drain emitting foul odours, encroaches on, or undermines, the narrow passage, and dirt and disorder meet the eye of the too inquisitive visitor.

But if there are many houses which do not come up to the one I have described, there are others that surpass it. In the newer portions of most of the large towns, and towards their outskirts, long rows of houses have been built on land which, having cost less in the purchase, has been more liberally distributed. These houses, though of about the same size as others, have been arranged with more regard to some of the comforts and necessities of life; a covered place in the middle of the row has been reserved for a common pump and wash-house; the walls of the upper room rise higher before slanting off into the roof; the gardens are larger; and instead of the houses being built in back courts, they are arranged in streets; or parallel rows of them placed back to back, and with pretty gardens separating the blocks, themselves abut on to some wide street or canal at one end, while the other is bounded by the open fields. Nothing can be healthier than such an arrangement. The rents of such cottages are much about the same as those within the town.

But I must not omit to mention the model lodging-houses for the labouring classes which have within the last four or five years sprung up in some of the large towns, being built by Companies issing their bonds with coupons paying fixed dividends amounting to 5 per cent. per annum. In some of these cottages a not unsuccess-

ful attempt has been made to attain the advantages of the continental flat system without doing violence to the prejudices of the tenants in favour of separate houses. They are built in rows like the other cottages, and with double fronts looking opposite ways into separate gardens. A front door opens towards each garden. The cottage is inhabited by two families; the one owns the ground-floor, consisting of two rooms looking opposite ways, and has the sole enjoyment of the garden plot on one side. The other family inhabits the upper storey, to which there is direct access by a staircase leading up from a front door on the opposite side, and has the exclusive use of the other garden, as well as of an attic in the roof. The idea of this arrangement is that as the houses are built in rows, and as the two families which inhabit any one house have separate doors and separate gardens on opposite sides of the house, they have even less to do with each other, and see less of each other than they do of their next door neighbours, and have every opportunity, therefore, of remaining as much strangers to each other as though they were in the next street, which, indeed, they may be said to be. The idea is not a bad one, though such an arrangement must have, one would think, some disadvantages. One can certainly imagine occasions on which it might be desirable to communicate with one's upstairs fellow-lodgers without having to leave the house, turn the corner, go up the next street, and knock at their door. The economy in cost of construction and in space of this plan over that of two separate houses placed back to back is apparently limited to their being but one staircase instead of two, though even this sounds more than it really is, inasmuch as staircases used merely to mount to the sleeping apartments need not be either so large or expensive as the one which is the only means of communication for a whole family with the street below. Perhaps the leading advantage is the free current of air which may at any moment be obtained by either family by means of windows facing opposite directions. These houses are quite new, and are built with every convenience and improvement which can be reasonably expected, notwithstanding which the rents are certainly not higher than other houses of the same size. At the Hague, for the ground-floor, 2*s.* 1*d.* is paid, while the upstairs

lodgers, who have the advantage of the attics, pay 2*s*. 8*d*. a week.

Though the original preferred object of these building societies was to build cottages for the working classes, it has not in every instance been attained. In the Hague especially, where applicants for the superior accommodation are numerous, and the number of cottages but limited, the labouring classes have gone rather to the wall. Many of the cottages, I am informed, are inhabited by old servants of the Court, or by other persons not artizans, who have possessed the necessary influence to obtain them.

The Netherlands are somewhat conspicuous by a paucity of legislation on matters connected with the labouring classes. While other countries have been bringing the authority of the law to bear on artizans or their employers with the object of restraining or protecting them, Holland seems to have gone on the principle of letting well (or bad) alone. Thus, no law would seem to have been found necessary to protect the young from the cupidity of their parents by prohibiting their working in the factories under a certain age; no act of the Legislature has been called for to limit the hours of labour either in the cotton-mill or at the dressmaker's; the young like the old are left free to do as they like, or as their parents tell them, and carry out the principle ever uppermost in this country, namely, that each individual is free to do with himself and with his own what he pleases, regardless of the common weal or woe, provided only that he do not transgress the code which is equally binding on all.

It is possibly to this impatience of control that may be traced the absence in this country of the system of apprenticeship such as it exists in England and, I believe, in many other countries. It is not the custom here for a boy wishing to learn a trade to be bound over to a master by indentures, or to enter into any arrangement answering thereto. A boy who wants to learn a trade provides himself with the necessary tools and obtains employment like any other workman, with the exception that his wages are not much more than nominal, being often less than a shilling a week. The master sets him to some easy sort of work, providing him with the materials, and makes the best use of him he can, doubt-

less not losing sight of the fact that, should the lad become tired of his work or be harshly treated, he is liable to leave at any moment and seek similar or other instruction elsewhere. In practice the plan answers well enough. The very fact of a boy presenting himself with tools of his own is a *primâ facie* proof that he is in earnest, while the master does not often undertake to teach a perfectly raw hand without preliminary inquiries as to his character, and obtaining, if indeed he does not already possess it, some knowledge of his parents. Moreover, it naturally often happens that a boy gets his first instruction in his trade in the workshop of his own father, or some other near relative.

There happens, however, to be a law somewhat affecting the liberty of the workman which, having been originally adopted by this country with the rest of the French codes, has never been abrogated as it has been in some other Continental countries, including France itself, where it was repealed by the Law of the 25th of May, 1864. I refer to the 415th and 416th Articles of the Penal Code, which forbid the right of combination on the part of workmen in order to obtain a rise of wages, limitation of the hours of labour, or other boon not already possessed. The following is a translation of the two Articles referred to from the revised Dutch text, which it may be observed varies from the original French Law to some extent:—

"Article 415. All conspiracy or combination on the part of workmen, having for object either a simultaneous suspension of work, or to forbid working in a particular factory, or workshop, or other place of labour, or to bring about in any way a cessation of work, or in any manner to fetter it, or to raise the price of labour, shall be punished with imprisonment for any period not less than one month, and not exceeding three months.

"The leaders or originators thereof shall be liable to an imprisonment of from two to five years.

"Article 416. Workmen who, under pretence of denouncing or condemning, or under any other pretext, shall proclaim or publish any penalty, prohibition, interdiction, or proscription either against the directors or managers of any factory or other place of work, or against one another, shall be liable to the punishment provided by the preceding Article, the same distinction

being observed with regard to the more or less prominent part they have taken in the offence.

"The leaders and originators of the offences mentioned in this and the preceding Article shall, on the expiration of their term of punishment, be placed under police surveillance during a period of not less than two years, and not exceeding five years."

In reply to a question put a few days ago to the Government by a member of the Second Chamber, the Minister of Justice stated that the Government had no intention of taking any step towards introducing such a fundamental change in the law as would be effected by the passing of a Bill for the repeal of the Articles above cited. I believe I am not wrong in stating that the general impression with regard to the working of this law, as compared with the results of an opposite state of the law in England and in some other countries, is such that there is little probability of any change being made for some time to come, either by the present party in power, or by any other.

The law as it now stands is certainly not found to work badly or oppressively. The labour market, like any other market, is regulated by the simple law of supply and demand, and the two are found to adjust themselves without recourse to any of those violent measures which periodically convulse trade at home, and often bring ruin alike on employers and employed. Such a thing as a strike is here almost unknown. Once or twice, indeed, it has been attempted, but it met with little sympathy, and was speedily suppressed. Where masters and men are forbidden to fight, they learn to arrange their differences by more gentle and civilized means. Where aggressive combination is prohibited to the one party, the other has no inducement to resort to it, and feels less reluctance to accede to temperate and reasonable demands. I have been informed by an employer of labour in this town that a few weeks ago a representation was made to him by his workmen that prices had been steadily advancing while their wages had as steadily remained stationary, and a request was submitted to him that he would give them a small increase in their pay to the amount of one-fifth of a penny per hour. The request appeared to him reasonable, and he granted it. A like representation was made at the same time by

other workmen employed in the same trade, and meeting in several instances with the same favourable reception the result has been that wages in that particular trade are now one-fifth of a penny per hour higher all through the town than they were before. Here, then, under the Penal Code of 1810, without a strike, without a threat, without the provocation of the slightest ill-feeling between master and man, or between one man and another, a general rise of wages has been effected. No workshop has been closed, no artizan has refused to work, no one has been ruined.

It will be readily understood from what precedes that there has been no opportunity for the organization in the Netherlands of Trades Unions such as they exist elsewhere. Though by the 10th Article of the Constitution, supplemented by the provisions of the Law of the 22nd April, 1855, the right of reunion is amply recognized and secured, any acts such as those which form the chief object of Trades Unions in England would at once bring any association under the penalties of the Penal Code. The only associations of workmen known in this country are a species of trade clubs, the object of which is the laudable one of creating for each trade a sort of pension or relief fund to be drawn on by the members when unable to work in consequence of sickness or old age. The weekly contribution of members is about 10*d*. A regular payment to this amount insures to the contributor a weekly allowance of about 1*s*. a-day in case of ill-health or old age, and in the event of his death the payment of a sum of about 8*l*. to cover his funeral expenses. It is, both in theory and fact, entirely voluntary whether a workman joins such association or not.

I regret that it is out of my power to furnish statistics on the proportion which the artizan and industrial classes bear to the rest of the population or to other particular classes, such details having so far not been accurately ascertained and published in this country.

It only remains for me to give my opinion as to the general state of the labour market, and especially as to the opening presented for the introduction of labour from without.

My opinion on this point will be easily arrived at from the preceding remarks.

Dutch labour is comparatively cheap, so cheap that native and foreign employers established here find it their interest to dispense wholly with any but native labour except in rare instances as in the care of skilled foremen. And even these, tempted out in the first instance by high remuneration offered them for the purpose of engaging their services rather as instructors than as overseers, having taught others to replace them, are accordingly replaced, and find themselves after two or three years without employment.

The native working classes are doubtless in a comfortable and contented state, poverty is rare, destitution almost unknown; but this is to be attributed chiefly to the national character, to steady life and thrifty ways. The condition of the Dutch workman affords no real criterion as to what the Britisher would be with similar pay and under similar circumstances. Granted that owing to superior dexterity or greater power of labour he might earn a somewhat higher rate of wages, yet his wants would be proportionably greater and his contentment less. Where the Hollander would be satisfied with a dinner of vegetables, the Englishman would require bread, cheese and bacon or even meat; where the one would be content with a mug of water the other would want his pot of beer.

Nor can it be doubted that, supposing the wants of the two in regard to food, clothing, and lodging were identical, the foreigner would fail in making his money go as far as the other, or that he would not have equal facilities for laying it out with advantage. The British workman arriving in Holland would have to encounter difficulties unknown to those, for the purpose of competing with whom, he had come to live amongst. Their language would be unknown to him, and he would be as unable to understand them as to make himself understood. Their manners and customs would be different; he would find them strange to him, and would feel himself a stranger among them. On this point I will try to speak plainly without giving cause for offence in any quarter. The character of the Dutch is not very dissimilar to our own in one respect. They considerably prefer themselves to foreigners, and have no natural and spontaneous outburst of affection towards a stranger as such. Amongst the lower classes the feeling is stronger, and borders

occasionally on aversion. It is a sentiment not unnatural amongst a people whose history teaches them to rely more on themselves then on others, and whose climate leads them to love the comfort and privacy of their own firesides. The working classes of this country can accordingly hardly be said to be animated by those feelings of good will and esteem towards the members of the same rank of life inhabiting the British isles which lead the Australian, the Canadian, or the United States' workman to stretch out the hand of welcome and fellowship to the English or Irish immigrant who lands on his shores.

I do not hesitate, therefore, to express my firm conviction that it is not to this country that the British artizan can hope to look for direct employment. If the state of the labour market at home be such that it is necessary for him to seek employment elsewhere, he will do best to offer the benefit of his experience and strength to those countries by which they will be more appreciated and better rewarded, and where he will find amongst men of a kindred race and familiar tongue that welcome which he will not find here.

Nor do I conceive that it would be more for the interests of England that he should live an Englishman in a foreign but closely neighbouring country, than that he should remove to one which, though further off, will make him a more genial home. In both cases the emigration will probably be a permanent one; in both cases whatever value his labour may represent will be lost to his own country, both in the shape of taxation and of his own accumulating capital. Whether this be great or small it will be transferred to the land of his choice. If this must be a foreign country at all, it is surely better that it should be one to which he will be induced speedily to surrender his allegiance than one within which he will long continue to reside a source of care and responsibility to the State which never hears of his existence except when he is in trouble, and to whom he never appeals except to invoke its protection against a neighbouring Power with whom it must ever be the wish and the interest of England to continue on terms of amity and good-will.

(Signed) SIDNEY LOCOCK.

No. 4.

Lord A. Loftus to the Earl of Clarendon.—(Received December 13.)

My Lord, *Berlin, December* 11, 1869.

I HAVE the honour to transmit to your Lordship herewith a Report drawn up by Mr. Petre, Secretary to Her Majesty's Embassy, in pursuance of the instructions of your Lordship's Circular despatch of the 30th April last, on the position of the industrial class in Prussia.

This Report has been drawn up by Mr. Petre with great care, and the statistical information it contains has been procured from the best official sources.

I cannot forward this Report to your Lordship without bearing my testimony to the zeal and ability with which Mr. Petre has collected and arranged in the most admirable order, the mass of information required to fulfil your Lordship's instructions.

Mr. Petre has devoted much time and great labour in the conscientious performance of this duty, and on perusing this Report your Lordship will see how impossible it was for Mr. Petre to have completed it within a shorter period.

Annexed to Mr. Petre's Report is a translation in full of the "Gewerbe Ordnung," or "Industrial Code," which Law was passed last year by the North German Parliament, and which has only lately come into operation. This important measure, by removing the obstructions and impediments which hampered trade, is calculated to infuse new life and vigour into the industry of the trading classes.

I have, &c.

(Signed) AUGUSTUS LOFTUS.

Inclosure in No. 4.

Report by Mr. Petre upon the Material and Social Condition of the Artizan and Industrial Classes in Prussia.

Berlin, December 8, 1869.

IN reporting, according to the instructions which I have received, upon various points connected with the

position of the industrial and artizan classes in Prussia, such as the proportion which they bear to other classes, the description of houses or lodgings which they generally occupy, the nature of their engagements with their employers, the rates of wages which they receive, and other points bearing upon their social condition and organization, it is necessary in the first place that I should give a general sketch of the population of the Kingdom, classified according to the various occupations and industries into which it is divided.

The returns of the last census, which was taken on December 3rd, 1867, and some unpublished statistical data* for which I am indebted to the courtesy of Dr. Engel, Director of the Statistical Bureau of Berlin, have furnished me with reliable materials for the purpose.

The census of 1867 was the first throughly complete one ever taken in Prussia. For the first time all heads of families and householders were called upon to answer the queries submitted by the central office, and when intellectually or physically incapacitated from doing so, their places were filled up by competent persons acting as volunteers, and in the last resort by the police. And as the lists were checked and examined with great care, it is supposed and may fairly be assumed that fewer errors crept into the last census than on any previous occasion. The answers, however, to the queries relating to industrial employments and conditions of labour are known to fall short of a full and perfect statement of the truth. The census fails, therefore, in this respect as an exact record, but no other returns exist than those which it supplies, for ascertaining with any minuteness or accuracy the proportions of the various classes into which the population of Prussia is divided.

Subjoined is a tabular Statement showing the numerical proportions of the different classes of the population of Prussia, dividing heads of householders and individuals personally occupied, from members of families and dependents.

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* Since this Report was written they have been published in the journal issued by the Statistical Bureau.

Occupations.	Heads of Households, and Individuals personally Occupied.		Families and Dependents.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
I. Agriculture, Cattle Breeding, Vine Cultivation, Gardening :—				
A. Landowners, owners of vineyards and gardens, tenant farmers, administrators, overseers, stewards, and persons similarly employed	1,163,289	203,848	1,682,601	1 1,698
B. Assistants, agricultural apprentices, and labourers employed in agriculture, &c.	1,618,597	1,119,628	1,147,147	1,880,632
II. Management of Forests and Preservation of Game :—				
A. Forest officials, and officials of all grades employed in the preservation of game	19,009	62	18,604	38,447
B. Labourers employed in the forests	15,035	992	12,379	24,337
III. Fisheries	13,350	1,161	13,626	25,106
IV. Mining and Metallurgy :—				
A. Owners and lessees of mines and foundries, employés in mines, stone, lime, or slate quarries, turf pits, ore dressing, and metallurgic works of all kinds	7,443	484	7,914	14,300
B. Miners and workmen of all kinds employed in ditto	188,232	5,320	140,555	264,036
V. Manufactures and Retail Industry, including building, printing, engraving, lithography, &c. :—				
A. Millowners, manufacturers, factory managers and employés, clerks of building works, master tradesmen, &c.	765,609	55,979	782,645	1,522,675
B. Factory overseers, foremen, mechanics, assistants, journeymen, apprentices, and factory operatives ...	1,026,544	141,771	389,951	753,069
VI. Commerce. (Commercial dealings in goods, money, and credit; trade books, works of art, music, and insurances) :—				
A. Merchants, bankers, dealers in books, works of art, and music, and persons of all kinds employed in these branches of trade. Directors, officers, and agents of insurance offices	161,858	26,727	161,857	334,835
B. Clerks, apprentices, salesmen, packers, loaders, &c..	92,013	10,152	14,432	28,620
VII. Traffic :—				
1. Land Traffic. (Conveyances of passengers and goods, post, telegraph, and railway traffic) :—				
A. Coach proprietors, Hackney coach proprietors, clerks, &c., post, telegraph, and railway officials, and employés of all kinds	76,722	1,911	70,334	140,062
B. Drivers, postillions, labourers employed in the railways, &c.	52,491	1,174	30,198	60,930
2. Water Traffic. (Navigation, exclusive of the Royal Navy) :—				
A. Shipowners, freighters, ships' officers, officials of all kinds connected with shipping	14,484	940	14,390	28,096
B. Ships' crews, sailors, boatmen, ferrymen	33,086	903	23,873	45,044
3. Refreshment and Lodging. (Inn-keeping and public establishments of all kinds where food and drink are supplied) :—				
A. Owners, tenants, and managers of all such establishments and shops	70,475	13,052	94,961	176,755
B. Waiters, hired servants at hotels, commissioned guides and porters	22,583	7,126	4,688	9,611
VIII. Domestic and Personal Service :—				
A. House stewards, waiting men, valets, upper servants, equerries, butlers, proprietors of street messenger institutions	9,880	14,329	5,565	11,484
B. Menial servants and domestics, labouring mechanics, labourers (with the exception of agricultural labourers), street messengers, and sorters	430,424	627,771	346,172	651,567
IX. Medical Service and care of the Sick :—				
Medical officers, doctors, apothecaries, personal attendants on the sick of all kinds, including midwives, nurses, and deaconesses (Sisters of Mercy) ...	19,874	16,942	16,763	33,807
X. Education and Instruction :—				
Tutors, masters, professors, and persons of all kinds employed in education and teaching	57,755	14,049	53,410	100,657
XI. Art, Literature, and the Press :—				
Artists of all kinds, actors, musicians, officials employed in museums, collections, libraries, theatres, &c. Men of science and letters, writers, and journalists	21,837	2,667	12,090	24,064

Occupations.	Heads of Households, and Individuals personally Occupied.		Families and Dependents.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
XII. The Church and Public Worship:— Ecclesiastical functionaries of all kinds. Clergymen, sacristans, sextons, and persons connected with the business of interments	28,844	1,489	18,670	46,441
XIII. The Royal Households	1,287	244	700	1,943
XIV. Government Departments and Civil Service:— Officials and functionaries belonging to the police, finance, foreign, and federal departments, and persons in attendance on the departments	38,223	144	29,097	67,693
XV. Justice and Law:— Attorneys, barristers, notaries, functionaries of all kinds belonging to the department of Justice, and persons in attendance	29,023	19	19,106	43,996
XVI. The Army:— All persons serving in the Army, and officials employed in connection with the War Department ...	247,153	17	13,034	31,513
XVII. The Navy:— Officers and men, and officials of all grades	2,490	2	287	703
XVIII. Communal and Municipal Administration:— Officials and functionaries of all grades	37,673	333	36,332	73,112
XIX. Persons having no distinct Occupation:— A. Living upon their own means	115,862	119,413	78,094	190,294
B. Depending on public support: viz., all those who are in receipt of alms; inmates of asylums, poor-houses, &c. Prisoners of all classes	113,902	118,405	26,344	40,354
XX. Persons whose Occupations could not be ascertained...	33,891	88,998	75,683	127,976
Total.	6,528,941	2,596,652	5,341,492	9,503,856

N.B.—The Populations of Hohenzollern and Jahde are included in the Totals, but not in the separate divisions of the Population as shown above.

The total population of Prussia, as classified in the preceding Table, amounted, therefore, on the 3rd of December, 1867, to 23,970,901, exclusive of Lauenburg, which, though dynastically united with Prussia, is not yet formally incorporated, and has a population of 49,978 persons. The male population amounted to 11,870,433, or 49·52 per cent., and the female to 12,100,508, or 50·48 per cent. The relative per-centage of the sexes had slightly altered since the previous census of 1864, when the female population was only 50·25 per cent., and the male 49·77 per cent. This falling off in the male, as compared with the female population, and consequently in the productive forces of the country, is readily explained by the increase of emigration which carries off to America so many of the male adults of the population.

Fifty-five per cent. of the males come under the class of heads of families and persons actively employed, and 21·46 per cent. of the females. To every 100 males

heads of families and actively employed in some occupation, there are 39·79 females of the same class, with 81·81 male and 145·56 female members of families and dependents. Assuming, therefore, that, taken collectively, the females who are classed as persons actively employed are not in a position to do more than earn their own livelihood, every man of this class in Prussia has upon an average to provide for 3·27 persons, himself included.

These relative conditions vary very considerably in different provinces of the Kingdom, but it would be impossible to go deeper into the question without exceeding the scope and limits of a Report of this nature. The following Tabular Statement indicates sufficiently for the purpose the relative per-centage of the two sexes amongst those who are reckoned as heads of families and persons individually engaged in the various occupations under which the whole population is ranged.

Occupations.	Per-centage of Male Heads of Families, and Persons actively occupied.	Per-centage of Female Heads of Families, and Persons actively occupied.	Number of Dependents, &c., for every Male Head of a Family, &c.		
			Male.	Female.	Total.
I. Agriculture, cattle-breeding, vine cultivation, &c.:—					
A	17·82	7·85	1·45	2·33	3·78
B	24·79	43·12	0·71	1·16	1·87
II. Management of forests, and preservation of game:—					
A	0·29	..	0·98	2·02	3·00
B	0·23	0·04	0·82	1·62	2·44
III. Fisheries	0·20	0·04	1·02	1·88	2·90
IV. Mining and metallurgy:					
A	0·11	0·02	1·06	1·92	2·98
B	2·88	0·20	0·75	1·40	2·15
V. Manufactures and Retail Industry:—					
A	11·73	2·16	1·02	1·99	3·01
B	15·72	5·46	0·38	0·73	1·11
VI. Commerce:—					
A	2·48	1·03	1·00	2·07	3·07
B	1·41	0·39	0·16	0·31	0·47
VII. 1. Land traffic:—					
A	1·18	0·07	0·92	1·83	2·74
B	0·80	0·05	0·58	1·16	1·74
2. Water traffic:—					
A	0·22	0·04	0·99	1·94	2·93
B	0·51	0·03	0·72	1·36	2·08

Occupations.	Per-centage of Male Heads of Families, and Persons actively occupied.	Per-centage of Female Heads of Families, and Persons actively occupied.	Number of Dependents, &c., for every Male Head of a Family, &c.		
			Male.	Female.	Total.
3. Refreshment and lodging :—					
A	1·08	0·50	1·35	2·51	3·85
B	0·35	0·27	0·21	0·43	0·64
VIII. Domestic and personal service :—					
A	0·15	0·55	0·56	1·16	1·72
B	6·59	24·18	0·80	1·52	2·32
IX. Medical service and care of the sick	0·30	0·65	0·84	1·65	2·49
X. Education and instruction	0·88	0·56	0·92	1·74	2·67
XI. Art, literature, and the press	0·33	0·10	0·55	1·10	1·65
XII. The church and public worship; interments .	0·44	0·06	0·65	1·61	2·26
XIII. The Royal household ..	0·02	0·01	0·58	1·51	2·05
XIV. Government Departments	0·59	0·01	0·76	1·77	2·53
XV. Justice	0·44	..	0·66	1·52	2·17
XVI. The army	3·79	..	0·05	0·13	0·18
XVII. The navy	0·04	..	0·11	0·28	0·39
XVIII. Communal and municipal administration ..	0·58	0·01	0·97	1·94	2·91
XIX. Persons having no profession or employment :—					
A	1·77	4·68	0·67	1·64	2·31
B	1·74	4·56	0·23	0·35	0·58
XX. Persons whose employment could not be ascertained . ..	0·52	3·43	2·23	3·78	6·01
Total	100	100	0·82	1·46	2·27

The subjoined Statement shows how the population of the different provinces is composed, and in what respects they resemble or differ from each in this particular.

Provinces.	Actual Population on the 3rd of December, 1867.			Per-centage of Total Population.		Total Number of Heads of Families, &c.		Total of Families and Dependents.	
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Prussia	1,514,398	1,576,562	3,090,960	48·99	51·01	779,743	348,557	734,655	1 228,005
Posen	750,401	786,937	1,537,338	48·81	51·19	374,844	163,181	375,557	623.756
Silesia	1,725,535	1,860,217	3,585,752	48·12	51·88	958,316	448,214	767,219	1,412,003
Pomerania	714,427	731,208	1,445,635	49·42	50·58	370,029	148,372	344,398	582,836
Brandenburg	1,357,910	1,357,716	2,715,626	50·00	50·00	796,734	312,690	561,176	1,045,026
Saxony	1,027,851	1,039,215	2,067,066	49·72	50·28	580,707	203,438	447,144	835,777
Schleswig-Holstein ..	490,803	490,915	981,718	49·99	50·01	285,401	111,974	205,402	378,941
Hanover	965,313	972,324	1,937,637	49·82	50·18	561,040	228,682	404,273	743,642
Westphalia	867,043	840,683	1,707,726	50·77	49·23	461,111	156,961	405,932	683,722
Hesse Nassau ..	675,521	704,224	1,379,745	48·96	51·04	378,796	154,901	296,725	549,323
Rhenish Provinces ..	1,748,625	1,706,733	3,455,358	50·61	49·39	963,167	313,152	785,458	1,393,581
Prussian Monarchy ..	11,870,433	12,100,508	23,970,941	49·52	50·48	6,528,941	2,596,652	5,341,492	9,503,856

N.B.—The populations of Hohenzollern and Jahde are included only in the Totals.

Provinces.	Per-centage of Heads of Families, &c., in relation to the Sexes.		Number of Families and Dependents for every Male Head of a Family, &c.			Class XIX. Paupers, Prisoners, &c.		Per-centage of the Population.		
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Prussia	51·49	22·11	0·94	1·57	2·51	20,448	24,044	1·35	1·53	1·44
Posen	49·95	20·74	1·00	1·66	2·66	8,306	8,415	1·11	1·07	1·09
Silesia	55·54	24·09	0·80	1·49	2·29	21,179	28,347	1·23	1·52	1·38
Pomerania	51·79	20·29	0·93	1·58	2·51	8,876	10,244	1·24	1·40	1·32
Brandenburg	58·67	23·03	0·70	1·31	2·02	18,318	17,311	1·35	1·28	1·31
Saxony	56·50	19·58	0·77	1·44	2·21	11,214	11,292	1·09	1·09	1·09
Schleswig-Holstein	58·15	22·81	0·72	1·33	2·05	6,589	7,749	1·34	1·58	1·46
Hanover	58·12	23·52	0·72	1·33	2·05	7,577	8,414	0 78	0 86	0·83
Westphalia	53·18	18·67	0·88	1·48	2·36	8,556	11,318	0·99	1·35	1·16
Hesse-Nassau	56·07	22·00	0·78	1·45	2·23	4,889	4,190	0·72	0·59	0·66
Rhenish Provinces	55·08	18·35	0·82	1·45	2·27	23,116	27,232	1·26	1·60	1·46
Prussian Monarchy ..	50·00	21·46	0·82	1·46	2·27	140,246	158,759	1·19	1·31	1·25

The proportion of the male population, as shown in the foregoing Statement, is largest in Westphalia, the Rhenish Province, and Brandenburg, where the great industrial centres are situated, and lowest of all in Silesia, where a portion of the male population emigrates to other provinces in search of employment, in the north-eastern provinces of Prussia (Pomerania, Posen), and in Hesse and Nassau, which furnish the largest annual contingents to emigration. The conscription for the army and the distribution of the troops, which vary in their effects as regards the numbers of the male population in different provinces, are, of course, disturbing elements in the calculation, but they do not affect the main results.

The average proportion to the whole male population of males actively employed or occupied is largest in Brandenburg, Schleswig-Holstein, and Hanover, consequently in those provinces, from the working population (I use the term in its broadest signification), having fewer dependents to provide for, the conditions of labour are most favourable. The least favoured provinces in this respect are Posen, Prussia, and Pomerania, and the taxes yield less in those provinces than in any others. Women who are employed in other than household work are fewer in the Rhenish Provinces, Westphalia, and Saxony, and most numerous in Silesia, Hanover, and Brandenburg. It would be rash, however, to draw any absolute conclusion from these data as to the economical condition of those provinces as compared with others. The long established customs of the country must also be taken into account with reference to the prevalence of female labour.

Consideriug the paramount importance of agriculture in most parts of Prussia, and how materially the wages and general condition of the artizan classes are affected by its prosperity or depression, I subjoin a Statement showing the composition of the agricultural population, and the relative proportions which the proprietors, cultivators, &c., and the labourers, male and female, bear to each other and to the whole population.

Hohenzollern and Jahde are included in the grand totals but not in detail.

Provinces.	Male Heads of Families and others personally occupied, of Classes I, II, and III of the Population.						Per-centage of the Male.		Number of Labourers, &c., to every 100 Landowners, Cultivators, Employés, &c.
	I.—Agriculture.		II.—Forest Cultivation.		III. Fisheries.	Total.	Heads of Families, &c.	Population.	
	Landowners and Cultivators.	Labourers, &c.	Employés, &c.	Labourers, &c.					
Prussia	162,808	309,361	2,484	718	4,575	479,946	61·6	31·7	188
Posen	79,869	144,689	1,596	520	441	227,115	60·6	30·3	178
Silesia	201,325	225,658	3,344	3,851	272	434,450	45·3	25·2	113
Pomerania	56,445	128,462	1,438	482	3,625	190,452	51·5	26·7	223
Brandenburg	93,349	151,404	2,323	693	1,483	249,252	31·3	18·4	159
Saxony	75,954	123,860	1,381	2,600	427	204,222	35·2	19·9	164
Schleswig-Holstein . ..	42,541	84,762	433	218	960	128,914	45·2	26·3	198
Hanover	114,490	163,813	1,351	3,587	833	284,074	50·6	29·4	145
Westphalia	77,050	89,629	1,040	467	28	168,214	36·5	19·4	115
Hesse-Nassau	82,321	61,218	1,961	931	240	146,671	38·7	21·7	74
Rhenish Provinces	172,237	133,815	1,547	951	459	309,009	32·1	17·7	78
Prussian Monarchy ..	1,163,289	1,618,597	19,009	15,035	13,350	2,829,280	43·3	23·8	138

Provinces.	Female Heads of Families, &c., of Classes I, II, and III of the Population.				Per-centage of the whole Number of Female Heads of Families, &c.	Total of Male and Female.		Number of Labourers, &c., to every 100 Landowners, &c.
	Agriculture, and Forest Cultivation.		III. Fisheries.	Total.		Heads of Families, &c.	Dependents.	
Prussia	26,279	191,971	549	218,799	62·8	698,745	1,341,532	262
Posen	13,517	90,074	33	103,624	63·5	330,739	667,536	248
Silesia	42,209	190,796	17	233,022	52·0	667,472	1,170,547	170
Pomerania	11,340	76,611	293	88,244	59·5	278,696	550,731	297
Brandenburg	12,785	101,785	76	114,646	36·7	363,898	660,430	234
Saxony	11,551	86,778	20	98,349	48·3	302,571	509,457	240
Schleswig-Holstein	5,628	50,145	75	55,848	49·9	184,762	299,558	278
Hanover	16,695	121,829	44	138,568	60·6	422,642	631,332	218
Westphalia	13,461	66,545	6	80,012	51·0	248,226	469,527	171
Hesse-Nassau	16,432	58,633	42	75,107	48·5	221,778	392,908	120
Rhenish Provinces	33,057	83,544	6	116,607	37·2	425,616	842,210	106
Prussian Monarchy ..	203,910	1,120,620	1,161	1,325,691	51·1	4,154,971	7,554,577	199

The following Statement shows that somewhat less than half of the total male and more than half of the female heads of families, &c., having a distinct occupation, more especially in the north-eastern provinces, are engaged in agriculture :—

Provinces.	Heads of Families and Persons individually engaged in some Distinct Occupation.		Families and Dependents of the same.		Total of Both.	Agricultural Population.	Per-centage which the Agricultural Population forms of the total of Heads of Families, &c., and Dependents.	Agricultural Population to each Square Mile (German).
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.				
Prussia..	746,377	313,758	715,343	1,187,965	2,963,443	2,040,277	68·85	1,799
Posen	359,715	147,534	366,799	606,796	1,480,844	998,275	67·41	1,899
Silesia	905,021	383,969	736,451	1,344,745	3,370,220	1,838,019	54·54	2,518
Pomerania	355,810	130,761	334,745	561,810	1,383,126	829,427	59·97	1,516
Brandenburg	760,486	265,565	536,715	998,078	2,560,844	1,024,328	40·00	1,414
Saxony..	555,179	173,892	431,676	803,169	1,963,916	812,028	41·35	1,772
Schleswig-Holstein ..	271,351	97,252	197,810	361,480	927,893	484,720	52·24	1,522
Hanover.	546,087	209,148	393,081	721,706	1,870,022	1,053,974	56·36	1,508
Westphalia	449,947	140,770	394,305	667,000	1,652,022	717,753	43·45	1,956
Hesse-Nassau	364,911	137,083	285,357	525,423	1,312,774	614,686	46·82	2,170
Rhenish Provinces ..	932,120	264,535	756,057	1,340,959	3,293,671	1,267,826	38·49	2,589
Prussian Monarchy (including Hohenzollern) ..	6,265,286	2,269,836	5,161,371	9,145,232	22,836,725	11,709,548	51·28	1,859

Arrangement of the Provinces according to their importance as regards—

(*a.*) Amount of Agricultural Population.	(*b.*) Male Heads of Families, and Persons individually Occupied, &c.	(*c.*) Female Heads of Families, ditto.	(*d.*) Large Proprietors.	(*e.*) Net Produce of the Land Tax.	(*f.*) Density of Population.
Prussia.	Prussia.	Posen.	Pomerania.	Saxony.	Rhenish Provinces.
Posen.	Posen.	Prussia.	Schleswig-Holstein.	Rhenish Provinces.	Silesia.
Pomerania.	Hanover.	Hanover.	Prussia.	Hesse-Nassau.	Hesse-Nassau.
Hanover.	Pomerania.	Pomerania.	Posen.	Schleswig-Holstein.	Westphalia.
Silesia.	Schleswig-Holstein.	Silesia.	Saxony.	Westphalia.	Saxony.
Schleswig-Holstein.	Silesia.	Westphalia.	Brandenburg.	Silesia.	Brandenburg.
Hesse-Nassau.	Hesse-Nassau.	Schleswig-Holstein.	Hanover.	Hanover.	Schleswig-Holstein.
Westphalia.	Saxony.	Hesse-Nassau.	Westphalia.	Brandenburg.	Posen.
Saxony.	Westphalia.	Saxony.	Silesia.	Pomerania.	Hanover.
Brandenburg.	Brandenburg.	Rhenish Provinces.	Hesse-Nassau.	Posen.	Prussia.
Rhenish Provinces.	Rhenish Provinces.	Brandenburg.	Rhenish Provinces.	Prussia.	Pomerania.

A reference to the figures in the preceding Tables, will show that the Province of Brandenburg, in which Berlin is situated, and where the value of land and agricultural produce must naturally be enhanced by the proximity of the capital has, with the exception of the Rhenish Province, the smallest per-centage of agricultural population. This is, of course, explained in some measure by the large population of Berlin, but it is also due to the nature of the soil itself, which, being sandy, requires lighter labour and fewer hands for its cultivation and admits of earlier harvests. The same may be said of many portions of Pomerania. The landowners in this latter province complain much, however, of scarcity of labour owing to emigration which has been stimulated by the low rate of agricultural wages, and by two successive years of scarcity. The Provinces of Schleswig-Holstein and Hanover contain large tracts of meadow and pasture land which require comparatively few agricultural labourers. Saxony has a low average of agricultural population, although the standard of agriculture is higher there than in any other province. It is very probable that, as the census was taken in winter, when agricultural labour in Germany is at a standstill, the floating population was employed on industrial labour elsewhere, and were comprised in some other class.

To turn from the agricultural to the industrial classes of the population, the relative proportion of employés and workmen classed under the two heads of metallurgie and mining industry (Class IV), and of manufacturing and retail industry or petty trade (Class V), is shown in the following Tabular Statement. With the exception of dividing mining from metallurgy in industry, the census unfortunately grouped together under one head the different branches of manufacturing industry and trade, and there are no reliable materials whatever available for separating the population which is classed collectively under this head into its component elements. This separation was made in the census of 1861, but the Returns proved to be so fallacious and incomplete that the attempt was not renewed when the late census was taken.

Provinces.	Male Heads of Families, &c., belonging to Classes IV. and V.					Per-centage of the total number of Heads of Families, &c., having some distinct Occupation.	Number of Workmen to every 100 Owners, Employers, and Clerks and Master Tradesmen.
	Mines and Iron Works.		Manufactures and Trades.		Total.		
	Owners and Employers.	Workmen.	Manufacturers, Masters, &c.	Workmen.			
Prussia	165	232	58,039	61,016	119,452	16·00	105
Posen..	93	127	33,262	25,845	59,327	16·49	78
Silesia	1,657	44,846	99,509	134,133	280,145	30·95	177
Pomerania	115	273	35,694	41,559	77,641	21·82	117
Brandenburg	427	3,687	91,739	192,178	288,026	37·87	213
Saxony.	734	14,381	80,579	116,051	211,745	38·14	160
Schleswig-Holstein ..	44	9	38,642	34,399	73,094	26·94	89
Hanover	571	10,352	65,320	78,599	154,842	28·35	135
Westphalia	1,164	38,236	59,363	83,418	182,181	40·49	201
Hesse-Nassau	584	11,602	55,518	58,867	126,571	34·68	126
Rhenish Province ..	1,876	64,418	144,350	192,126	407,770	43·74	179
Prussian Monarchy ..	7,443	188,232	765,609	1,026,544	1,987,828	31·72	157

In the Provinces of Prussia and Posen local industry is insufficient to meet the comparatively small demand for articles of trade and manufacture required by the population, and yet the industrial classes are by no means in a prosperous condition. They are somewhat better off in Pomerania where the paucity of the industrial population is owing to the absence of manufactories, and they are still better off in Schleswig-Holstein where the population as a rule is comparatively rich and the local demand for articles of trade and manufacture consequently greater. Silesia, Westphalia, and the Rhenish Province, where the great iron and coal districts are situated, with the exception of Brandenburg, show the largest number of persons engaged in all branches of industry, and also the highest proportion of workmen to each employer.

The foregoing Table treats only of the male population comprised under Classes IV and V.

The female population under these two Classes is divided as follows :—

Provinces.	Females engaged in Industrial Occupations and Mines.		Total.	Per-centage of the whole Number of Female Heads of Families and Persons actively occupied.	Number of Work-women to every 100 Heads of Establish-ments, &c. under Classes IV and V.	Male and Female Dependents of Heads of Establish-ments, &c.	Total Industrial Population.	Per-centage of the Population having some Distinct Occupation.
	Heads of Establish-ments, Clerks, &c.	Work-women.						
Prussia	4,770	2,378	7,148	2·28	101	254,374	380,974	12·86
Posen	2,436	655	3,091	2·09	74	135,339	197,657	13·35
Silesia	9,003	26,771	35,774	9·32	187	537,599	853,518	25·33
Pomerania	1,823	1,600	3,423	2·62	115	159,958	241,022	17·43
Brandenburg	5,393	37,742	43,135	16·24	239	499,770	830,931	32·45
Saxony	4,579	12,026	16,605	9·55	166	437,229	665,579	33·89
Schleswig-Holstein . ..	3,956	2,505	6,461	6·64	87	137,476	217,031	23·39
Hanover	7,241	7,562	14,803	7·08	132	282,085	451,730	24 16
Westphalia	3,817	8,561	12,378	8·80	202	367,882	562,441	34·05
Hesse-Nassau	3,137	7,998	13,135	9·58	128	244,299	384,005	29·25
Rhenish Province	8,152	38,671	46,823	17·70	194	805,310	1,259,903	38 22
Prussian Monarchy ..	56,463	147,091	203,554	8·97	164	3,875,145	6,066,527	26·56

The following is a Statement, deduced from the figures of the preceding Table, showing the relative importance of each province, as regards the amount of the mining and industrial population, male and female, which it contains, the proportion of mines and manufactures to trade, and the per-centage which the industrial class—that is to say, all persons personally engaged in industry, and not including families and dependents—forms of the whole population.

(*a.*) Amount of Mining and Industrial Population.	(*b.*) Proportion of Male Heads of Families, &c., of Classes IV and V to all others.	(*c.*) Ditto of Female Ditto.	(*d.*) Preponderance of Mining and Manufacturing Industry over Trade ("Handwerk").	(*e.*) Relative Contribution to the Trade Tax ("Gewerbesteuer") per Head of the Population.
Rhenish Provinces.	Rhenish Provinces.	Rhenish Provinces.	Brandenburg.	Brandenburg.
Westphalia.	Westphalia.	Brandenburg.	Westphalia.	Rhenish Provinces.
Saxony.	Saxony.	Hesse-Nassau.	Rhenish Provinces.	Saxony.
Brandenburg.	Brandenburg.	Saxony.	Silesia.	Schleswig-Holstein.
Hesse-Nassau.	Hesse-Nassau.	Silesia.	Saxony.	Hesse-Nassau.
Silesia.	Silesia.	Westphalia.	Hanover.	Silesia.
Hanover.	Hanover.	Hanover.	Hesse-Nassau.	Westphalia.
Schleswig-Holstein.	Schleswig-Holstein.	Schleswig-Holstein.	Pomerania.	Hanover.
Pomerania.	Pomerania.	Pomerania.	Prussia.	Pomerania.
Posen.	Posen.	Prussia.	Schleswig-Holstein.	Prussia.
Prussia.	Prussia.	Posen.	Posen.	Posen.

To subject the remaining classes, into which at the commencement I divided the population of Prussia, to the same minute analysis as that which I have already applied to the first five divisions, would require more time and space than I can well devote it, and does not necessarily fall within the scope of a Report upon the position of the industrial classes. I shall proceed, therefore, at once, to give a general sketch of the economical conditions under which the different sections of the labouring classes in this country, agricultural and industrial, live. They may be ranged under the following heads:—

1. Agricultural labourers, male and female, who have a permanent engagement, and who live with their employer, (farm servants);

2. Agricultural labourers ("Tagelöhner") who generally contract to work for a considerable period of time for the landed proprietors, but very often leave their employment at the end of a year;

3. Domestic servants of all kinds;

4. Small tradesmen or artizans ("Handwerker") who either work on their account, single handed, or with slight assistance, or who work by contract for others;

6. Assistant workmen of tradesmen or artizans (journeymen and apprentices);

7. Ordinary factory operatives, who have not devoted any length of time as apprentices to learning a particular trade;

8. Porters and carriers of all descriptions employed for commercial or industrial purposes;

9. Workmen or day labourers ("Tagelöhner") without any regular or permanent engagement.

10. Workwomen.

Although my Report professes to deal more exclusively with the purely industrial population, I have included the agricultural section of the labouring classes in the preceding category, for the reason that the wages of agricultural labour in this country influence to a considerable extent the condition of the working classes generally, and it is exceedingly common for them to exchange one branch of labour for another.

Of the agricultural labourers or farm servants mentioned under No. 1, more than half are men and boys. Girls of this class are not so numerous as the women who

work as "Tagelöhner," or day labourers (No. 2). The chief duties of the farm servants in general consist in tending the cattle and flocks, in keeping the buildings and yards clean, sowing the seed, and dairy work. They have to work also in the distilleries and breweries which are commonly attached to large farming establishments, and they are employed generally in the more responsible and important duties of the farm.

At the manor-houses or gentlemen's seats ("Edelhöfe") it is usual to employ a large number of these farm servants. The peasant proprietors content themselves generally with one man and a boy, and several maid servants. Formerly, when labour was more abundant than it is now, the landowners and farmers used to set their faces against their farm servants marrying, but their anxiety now is to induce them not to leave their employment, and with this object they encourage them to marry. The married farm servants are called "Deputaten," or persons receiving an allowance in kind, to distinguish them from the other farm servants, who all take their meals together at the farm. The "Deputaten" receive, in addition to their wages, a certain allowance of corn, potatoes, &c. This primitive practice is, however, gradually giving way to the system of paying full wages in money. Payment in kind, as a rule, is now only made when the farm servants themselves choose to be paid in this manner, as they very often do when the price of corn is sufficiently high to enable them to make a profit out of it.

The want of trusty farm servants is beginning to be universally felt by the landowners and farmers. The causes of this growing change are easily traced. A larger and more varied field of employment has been opened by the development of industry and by increased facilities of locomotion. A yearning for independence, and for the possession of a home of their own, prevails even among the poorest of these farm servants. The doctrines of socialism too, which have penetrated, though not to any very great extent to this class, may have contributed in some degree to alienate them from their employment. The result, however, is, that they receive now higher wages and better food than formerly, and their condition is altogether different from what it was. Improvements have been introduced on most of the well-managed pro-

perties as regards the way in which the farm servants are lodged, but much still remains to be done in this respect. They generally sleep in the hayloft or in a garret in the cow-house. In all other respects, however, the treatment of farm servants is more considerate than it used to be, and the consciousness of their increased importance, to which this improved treatment may partially be attributed, renders them at the same time far less docile and obedient to their employers than formerly. Those who are in the service of the peasant proprietors, with whom they are more or less on a level in point of culture, are in the habit of taking their meals at the same table with their employers, and differ little from them in their social habits.

It has been observed that, after a series of good harvests, the farm servants, male and female, frequently give notice to quit, in order to work instead for daily wages as "Tagelöhner," which gives them more ready money.

Bad harvests and high prices, on the other hand, have the effect of inducing them to resume permanent employment as farm servants in preference to gaining a more precarious livelihood as independent labourers.

The second class of agricultural labourers, or "Tagelöhner," as they are termed, as distinguished from farm servants, may be divided into two categories: those who contract to work for the landowner or farmer for a certain definite period, ranging from one to three years, and those who have no fixed engagement, but who work for different employers as opportunity offers.

The former class of labourers is very general throughout the Eastern Provinces of Prussia, but rare in the manufacturing districts. They are usually married, and are bound by their contract to provide, in addition to their own labour, from two to four persons, called "Schaarwerker," to assist them. The system, in short, is a modified form of gangwork. The labourers themselves are bound to work upon the estate from 280 to 300 days, and the "Schaarwerker" (generally the family of the labourer), on the average, 250 days in the year. They are lodged gratis, or at a low rent, in the "Innsthauser," or farm lodging-houses belonging to the estate, and have a certain portion of land (from $\frac{1}{4}$ to $1\frac{1}{3}$ acres) allowed them, which is manured and cultivated

by the proprietor, a shed for goats or pigs, and some small allowances in kind. The wages and conditions of labour for this class of workmen vary too much according to circumstances, even on the same estate, to admit of generalization.

On the whole, their condition is less favourable than that of the farm servants. The class is recruited mostly from amongst those who have made improvident marriages, and are forced by the pressure of narrowed means and increasing families to sell their labour at a low rate. Those amongst them who have small families to provide for, or whose children are of an age or condition to contribute to the support of the family, are however decidedly better off than the farm servants, and generally enabled, in the course of a few years, to save a tolerable competency. This is more especially true of those who abstain from the immoderate use of spirits.

The prevailing system of contract work gives the industrious agricultural labourer a fair chance of earning very adequate wages, which he generally supplements by threshing-work during the winter months.

The house accommodation provided for the "Innstleute," or labourers who are lodged by the landed proprietor, is very inferior on most properties, both from a sanitary point of view and also on the score of comfort. Little attention has been paid to it, and the normal standard of comfort and of the sanitary conditions of rural dwellings in general is low. Very little has been done of late years in this direction by the landowners, owing to the heavy charges on estates and to the scarcity of money.

Agricultural labourers who work independently, and are not lodged, like the "Innstleute," by their employers, receive at least 20 per cent. higher wages in money than the latter; and they have this advantage over them, that in harvest-time they can get almost any wages they choose to ask from the landowners and farmers who are short of farm servants and "Innstleute." This is counterbalanced on the other hand by their forced idleness during the winter months, which generally swallows up all their savings, and has altogether a bad influence over their moral conduct. They usually marry in order to have a home of their own, and buy a bit of land on borrowed money to supply them with potatoes

and vegetables. Some of them lodge with the peasant-proprietors for whom they work, and several families are often crowded together in the same house.

One peculiar feature of agricultural labour in this country is the custom which prevails in several provinces of large bodies of labourers associating together and migrating during the summer months. The system followed is this. An experienced man is deputed to select and report upon some district suitable for the purpose. He then makes a contract for the work which is to be done, and twenty or more labourers, male and female, associate together and undertake harvest or other work for one or more of the large landed proprietors, whose estates are situated sometimes more than 200 miles away from the home of the labourers. When they have finished their work, and received the money which they contracted for, and which is equally divided amongst them, they return home for the winter. Labouring gangs of this kind migrate annually from the highlands, east of the Vistula, which afford but a scanty subsistence to the population, to the fertile lowlands across that river.

From the fen districts along the Warta, an affluent of the Oder, formerly colonized by Frederick the Great, and now over-populated, similar bands of labourers travel every summer to the neighbouring provinces. The beetroot sugar-manufactories in the neighbourhood of Magdeburg are supplied in this way from the Eichfeld, a sterile district of the Southern Hartz, with the additional labour which they require at a certain period of the year. Similar bodies, called "Hollandsgänger," crop over from Westphalia into the Netherlands; some as agricultural labourers, others as tile-makers; and hundreds of masons migrate annually from Silesia to the North Eastern Provinces of Prussia during the summer, to earn money for their support during the winter months.

The economical and social conditions under which the artizan classes ("Kleiner Handwerker") live and exercise their industry differ essentially from those of the agricultural labourers, whose position I have briefly described in the preceding paragraphs.

The development of trade and intercourse, which marked the beginning of the present century, tended to

break down the barriers and restrictions which compelled artizans to confine their industry to towns. Large numbers of petty tradesmen or artizans migrated in consequence to the country, and competed successfully with the industry of the towns in supplying the wants of the rural districts, thus partially depriving them of a valuable market which they had hitherto monopolized. One lasting consequence of this change was to raise generally the standard of industrial skill; but its more immediate effect was to ruin many of the small master tradesmen in the towns. A violent agitation in consequence sprang up everywhere against freedom of industry, and led to the enactment of a variety of onerous and restrictive laws and ordinances relating to the exercise of industry, some of which have lasted to the present day, and were only effaced a few months ago from the statute book, when a new "Industrial Code" was enacted by the Federal Parliament for the whole of the North German Confederation. This law has been too short a time in operation for its influence to have been felt, or to warrant any certain estimate of what its effect will be upon the general industry of the country. That it will exercise, *per se*, any very great immediate influence in stimulating the productive industry of North Germany by removing the restrictions which still hampered it, is, perhaps, open to doubt, although its value and importance as establishing the principle of the freedom of industry throughout the whole Confederation is obvious. The increase of the population, however, must naturally have a greater influence in this direction, and one less dependent on circumstances than legislation.

The vastly increased facilities of communication and transport introduced by the railways have had a very important influence here as elsewhere upon the class of handicraftsmen. Small tradesmen and artizans are now no longer able, as formerly, to keep up a stock of goods of their own manufacture for sale. The greater variety and cheapness of goods in the large shops attract customers to the populous towns, and travellers and commission agents scour the country in search of orders, wholesale and retail. For the same reason the annual markets and fairs, where the small tradesman used formerly to find a ready sale for his wares, are either

losing their importance or sinking into decay. These circumstances have driven the artizans in many branches of trade, particularly in the large towns, to seek fresh channels for their industry by allying themselves with the manufacturing interest. They confine themselves to the preparation of goods, which are used and bought up by the large manufacturers, and others work at nothing but repairs. Some of them have obtained situations as workmasters or foremen in the large manufactories. The majority, however, still cling to their old course of trade, taking orders and working for customers at such prices as the competition of the large shops and masters carrying on a similar trade to their own enables them to charge. The universal cry amongst this class of small artizans is that their trade is overstocked, and that the labour market is glutted. The real cause, however, of this stagnation of trade, extending also to commerce and manufactures, lies in diminished consumption.

The petty tradesmen or artizans in the small towns and rural districts, in addition to their ordinary business, frequently turn their hands to agriculture, and the possessor of a few acres of land is generally a thriving man in his class of life. Those who are less fortunate contract for employment connected with their industry on the large estates, and earn a little more than the higher farm servants. Where the estates are too small to admit of any permanent engagement of this nature, they move about from one estate to another, and return to do whatever work may have become necessary during their absence. Artizans in the small towns find similar employment in the houses of their customers in return for their board and lodging. At times, when there is no demand whatever for this kind of industry, they are forced to seek employment as ordinary labourers.

Under such changing and precarious conditions of labour, it is not surprising that perhaps half of the families of the artizan class which I have described live in comparative indigence. Fresh meat is an exceptional luxury with many of them, their household economy is of the humblest kind, and indulgence in spirituous drinks even in moderation beyond their means. To their honour, however, be it said, that as a general rule they bear up manfully against hard times, sustained by the conscious-

ness of a higher intelligence than that of the labouring class below them, and also by a pride of craft.

The class of journeymen artizans ("Handwerks Gesellen") includes all those persons employed to work for a handicraftsman, who, in accordance with long established usage, have received a technical education by practically learning their trade for several years under a master, and who have proved, either by executing a prescribed test work or merely (as in some trades and localities) by having received a certificate from a master, that they have acquired sufficient skill to earn their livelihood in the trade which they have selected. This test or examination is now no longer compulsory by law, but the long-established customs and characteristic usages of trade will in all likelihood survive, and the old rules and formalities prescribed for the admission of journeymen and for the subsequent acquisition of the rank of a master tradesman be maintained for some time to come.

The practice of travelling, or "wandering" as it is termed, for the purpose of completing his technical education, is still regarded by the German journeyman as an indispensible portion of his training. The young lad, released from his apprenticeship, leaves the house of his master and travels abroad whenever the German language is spoken. He usually, however, visits those towns which have a special reputation for excelling in his own particular branch of trade, and taking up his residence there, endeavours not merely to obtain a livelihood, but also, and more especially, to complete his technical education and to become a skilful workman. For this purpose he gets employment in the workshop of some master and remains there as long as either party choose, subject to the previous notice to quit which may be usual in the trade or in the locality.

If the travelling journeyman fails to find employment in the particular town which he has chosen for his visit, he receives pecuniary aid from the local journeymen's fund to enable him to pursue his journey elsewhere in pursuit of a similar object. The new Industrial Code makes it no longer compulsory upon guilds or trade associations to assist travelling journeymen out of their funds, and as the latter depend entirely for support either upon the employment which they may find, or upon assistance from the funds of their craft, this time-honoured

practice of travelling which, in spite of its practical objects, has a certain colouring of romance about it, will not improbably fall into gradual disuse.

Amongst the large towns which have a special reputation for excelling in particular branches of industry, may be mentioned, Munich, renowned for its brewers and saddlers, Dresden for its tailors (the Tailors' Academy at Dresden is much frequented by foreigners), Cologne and Munich for their stone-cutters, Barman (Elberfeld) for its fringe makers, Berlin and Vienna for their locksmiths, Iserlohn for its bronzers, &c. Leipsic also is considered the best school for teaching the polygraphic art in all its branches.

Some journeymen, who have got the means of doing so and have a talent for acquiring foreign languages, widen their experience by travelling beyond the limits of the fatherland. Numbers of enterprising journeymen leave every year to visit the watchmaking establishments of the Jura, the machine manufactories and lockmaking works of England, the arms and gun factories of Liege, and the industrial establishments of Lyons, Brussels, and, above all, Paris. Many of them remain some years or permanently settle in these places, and, true to their German habits of thrift and industry, generally thrive. They are as a rule, however, the *élite* and most intelligent of the class of journeymen, and their success, therefore, is less to be wondered at. Whilst the German artizan is to be found in nearly every country in the world, Germans following other avocations seldom, with the exception of commercial people and men of letters, leave their country except to cross the ocean. The travelled journeyman (and the same is true in a lesser degree of those who have limited their wanderings to Germany), returns to his own country from abroad not only possessing the advantages of improved knowledge and technical skill, but with his mind and general ideas expanded by a knowledge of the world beyond the narrow limits of his own home. In fact he returns a much more enlightened man in every way than he was when he set out.

This practice of travelling is exclusively confined to journeymen of the German race. The Lithuanians and the Wends hardly ever occupy themselves with any other industry than agriculture, and Polish journeymen

are not numerous, except in the shoemaking trade, which seems to be the special branch of industry most patronized by them. In the Polish Province of Prussia this class of travelling journeymen is unknown, and there is a total want in the country of good models from abroad.

Another institution connected with travelling journeymen deserves a casual mention, as a relic of the past. For centuries, certain inns,—"Herbergen" as they are called,—have been specially set apart for the purpose of lodging and entertaining journeymen on their travels. These are used also as houses of meeting, or labour marts, to which masters of the various trades of the locality in want of workmen are in the habit of repairing. In former days these inns enjoyed certain privileges which now no longer exists, and in some of the more populous towns particular trades have their own special "Herbergen." This ancient institution of industrial "caravanseries" is, however, gradually dying out for many reasons. The inadequate sleeping accommodation which they provide for the travelling journeymen who frequent them, and the temptations and opportunities which they offer for excessive expenditure, and even for drunkenness and gambling, have tended to bring them into disrepute. The Protestant and Catholic Communities both took the matter in hand and have established separate inns for journeymen of their respective religions, and these are conducted by respectable managers or lessees. They are also used as inquiry offices for masters and workmen and for the meetings either of the Protestant Young Men's Societies or of the Associated Catholic Journeymen. Inquiry offices for workmen are established in several towns independently of any religious connection, and chiefly for the purpose of assisting workmen in procuring suitable lodgings, but many of them have been closed for want of support.

With some few rare exceptions, neither the State, nor the Communes, nor the Chambers of Commerce have ever actively concerned themselves in any way with the labour question with reference to supply and demand. Journeymen artizans in seeking openings for their labour can resort to the means, defective and insufficient as they may be, which I have described, but no such institutions exist for the purpose of assisting

factory operations, independent workmen, or agricultural labourers in procuring work.

The journeyman usually earns almost as much as a petty master, and if he is unmarried he is probably better off than his employer. In bad times, however, he runs the risk of loss of employment, and in the ordinary course of things exhausts his stock of savings. If he is fortunate enough to get employment in some large manufactory, and succeeds in recommending himself to the owner by the higher standard of industrial knowledge and skill which the journeyman in general acquires, his condition is much improved and his future less precarious. For even when trade is at its worst, and production reduced to the narrowest limits, it is the interest of the millowners not to let men of this stamp slip through their fingers.

Of the class of artizan apprentices little need be said. The youth of fifteen, when he has finished his schooling, selects his trade, and binds himself by covenant to a master for board, lodging, and instruction, and is taught the mysteries of the craft, generally free of cost, either by the master himself or by a journeyman deputed for the purpose. He is bound generally for three years, but in case of ill-treatment by the master, he is at once set free. One common abuse connected with the treatment of apprentices is that the masters frequently employ them in doing their household work, which deprives them of the leisure time to which they are entitled, and keeps them from regular attendance at the schools which are established for completing the non-technical education of young artizans. Employers, too, often avail themselves of apprentice labour—which costs them nothing but the board and lodging of the apprentice—to an extent which journeymen look upon as detrimental to their interests. On several occasions the journeymen, by combining against the masters, and even by invoking legislative aid, have attempted to limit the number of apprentices. Not long ago the owners of the large printing offices in Germany admitted the justice of this demand on the part of the journeymen, and agreed in consequence to adopt certain fixed rules on the subject. The Industrial Code, however, recognizes no such restrictions upon the reception of apprentices.

I will now proceed to describe the general condition

of factory operatives in Prussia. I have alluded above to the favourable position of those employed in factory labour who are recruited from the class of journeymen. The ordinary factory operative, although inferior in versatility and professional skill to the journeyman, is also materially well off. In respect to the sanitary state of the workrooms at the factories, public opinion rather than the law enforces the observance of certain rules and conditions in the interest of the health of the operatives, and in the large towns the police are armed with special powers in this respect. I believe, however, that the arrangements fall very far short at least of our English standard of what is necessary.

As a rule the factory operatives are fairly and properly treated by their employers. The hours of labour, however, are longer than they should be, and although the manufacturers in some of the industrial centres (in Gladbach amongst others) have agreed not to work their machinery more than twelve hours a day, they form an exception to the rule, which only legislative interference can materially alter.

Wages are for the most part sufficient to support single persons in comfort, and if they are at all thrifty, they can save and frequently do so, but the wages are insufficient to support a wife and children independently of what the latter earn themselves. The manufacturing population is pre-eminently deficient in the resolution, which distinguishes other industrial classes in this country, to strive to work their way up, even in spite of adverse circumstances, to comparative independence. The monotony of their daily labour seems to produce in them an inordinate longing for enjoyment, in the gratification of which they spend a considerable portion of their earnings and weaken their physical powers by dissipation.

Improvident and reckless marriages are very common amongst them, and end almost invariably in their decay and ruin. One result of their mode of life is, that as a class they are more discontented than any other with their lot, and lean more to socialism and subversive doctrines. I must in justice add that there are very numerous exceptions to that which I have described, as a general rule, amongst them. Where the intelligent millowner has taken care to provide for the physical and

moral wellbeing of the workmen in his employ, as is the case, for instance, in many of the extensive ironworks of Westphalia and the Rhine Province, the majority of the manufacturing population live in a prosperous condition, and look down with compassionate pity upon the less favoured agricultural labourer. In other places educational societies ("Bildungsvereine"), presided over by men of high consideration and intellectual attainments, exercise a very beneficial influence in tending to introduce amongst the operatives a taste for intellectual entertainments and pleasures. The engine builders at Berlin, a very numerous class of operatives employed in M. Borsig's manufactories, have a high reputation as an exemplary and thoroughly efficient body of workmen on excellent terms with their employer.

Fatherly relations, in the sense of a kindly intimacy, between employers and employed are very rare and exceptional in this part of Germany. There is something, even when both parties are best disposed towards each other, in the North German character opposed to such relations. An admission that their mutual interests require a due reciprocity of good offices between them and their employers, is the utmost to be expected from the working classes in this country. At the present day a majority of the factory operatives refuse even to admit this. All that they consent to recognize is the necessity of earning the means of subsistence.

Although the general standard of living is more or less uniform amongst all those who work at the mills and manufactories, except that in the Western Provinces of the Monarchy, the operatives demand and obtain much higher wages than in the Eastern Provinces, the same cannot be said of those who work for the mill-owners at their own homes. Omitting some few manufactures of local importance, such as the tailoring establishments at Berlin, the lockmakers and smiths at Wuppsenthal near Elberfeld, and to the agate cutters of the former Duchy of Nassau, I select the weaving trade as the most important.

By far the greatest portion of textiles are manufactured by the weavers at their own homes, with the assistance of the members of their families, or of journeymen, for large commercial houses and manufacturers. The latter

supply the materials and buy up the textiles at certain prices previously fixed upon.

The large silk manufactories on the left bank of the Rhine, for example, are able to give employment with the necessary materials to the handloom-weavers for several months at a time. A direct communication being established between the manufacturer and the weaver, the services of a middleman are not required. The weaver as soon as he has finished his work takes it to the manufacturer, and brings back with him a fresh supply of material. This class of weavers is tolerably well off. They are in possession of good looms, and are generally considered as sure to earn a decent livelihood. In times of great stagnation of trade they have suffered, of course, severely, in common with others, but they have generally recovered themselves with comparative ease.

In the mountainous district of Middle Silesia, where fifty years ago the linen industry was in a most flourishing condition until the rise of Irish competition and the closing of the Spanish market through the foreign policy of Frederick William III in refusing to acknowledge Queen Isabella of Spain, gave it a death-blow from which it has never recovered, the condition of the weavers is far less prosperous than those to whom I alluded above. Most of them, when the linen industry declined, turned their hands to cotton weaving; but as they could not afford to purchase the new looms they had to work on credit, and being completely at the mercy of the large manufacturing and commercial establishments by whom they were employed, were obliged to accept the lowest possible wages.

Attempts have been made, apparently with small success, to draft these Silesian handloom-weavers into other branches of industry and other occupations.

Of the more important groups which constitute the working classes of Prussia, these weavers, numbering about 30,000 or more, are undoubtedly the poorest, the worst fed, and from their weak physical constitutions, which does not prevent them, however, from having large families, the least capable of raising themselves unassisted above their present condition. Some change for the better has been effected of late by the erection of

large spinning and weaving factories, fitted with first-rate machinery, on the skirts of the mountains, attracted there no doubt by the cheapness and abundance of labour.

With respect to the employment of female labour in manufactories, owing to the rapid increase of population and the great development of industry, women are employed now to a much larger extent than formerly in the factories. More than a fifth of the whole number of factory operatives are females, and considering that the greater portion of them are members of families, and that they receive comparatively good wages, they are decidedly well off in an economical point of view. Their moral condition, owing to the male and female operatives working indiscriminately together at the mills, is from all accounts much less favourable. The Reports from the various provinces describe them as inordinately fond of pleasure and given to dissipation, adding that large numbers of them live a dissolute life, and have to bring up illegitimate childen. Many of the mill-owners take particular care to keep the workrooms of the sexes separate; but in some branches of manufacture this precautionary measure is impossible. The proprietors of the smaller class of manufactories show little inclination to incur expense by introducing the changes in the working of their establishments which the adoption of such a measure would render necessary.

The regular employment of children under 12 years of age in factories, mines, iron works, or stamping mills is forbidden by the Industrial Law of the 6th April, 1869. Youths under 16 are not permitted to work in any of the establishments above named for more than ten hours a-day, and they must be allowed half-an-hour's interval of rest both in the morning and in the afternoon, and a full hour at noon, with liberty for exercise in the open air at each time. In addition to this the law provides that due attention shall be paid to their health and schooling, and obliges factory-owners to furnish periodically exact lists of all the juvenile operatives in their employment. Still greater restrictions upon the employment of juvenile labour were imposed by the Law of the 16th May, 1853, although some concessions were made at the time to the masters. For the present state of the law as regards the employment of children

in factories, the hours of labour, &c., the reader of this Report is referred to the Industrial Code of 1869, a textual translation of which is annexed to it.

Amongst the working classes in Prussia the miners and iron workers hold an exceptional position, inasmuch as their welfare and interests are attended to by the Government officials who are appointed to superintend all the mines, iron works, and salt works in the Kingdom. This class of the labouring population is animated by an honourable *esprit de corps* dating from the earliest times, and forming a singular exception to the egotistical tendencies prevalent amongst the working classes of the present day. The great importance naturally attached to the conservation of so able and staunch a race of workmen as these miners and iron workers has induced both the State and the private owners of the larger works to provide suitable dwellings for them, and to make such general provision for their comfort and well-being as to make their lot an enviable one in comparison with many of their fellow-labourers. They seldom, however, succeed in amassing any considerable savings, and some of them emigrate from time to time to other countries where the mining industry is on a smaller scale than here.

The miners and iron-workers of Upper Silesia are almost exclusively Poles. They contrast unfavourably with the German workmen in their addiction to debauchery and dissipation, so much so that in many of the works where they are employed measures have been adopted for paying the weekly wages due to them to their wives to prevent them from squandering their earnings, instead of supporting their families. To what extent this system prevails I am unable to say; but, however legitimate its objects may be, it seems to be rather too great an interference with individual rights to admit of very wide application.

Foremen of works in factories, managers of printing offices, foremen of mines, and other such like headmen and overseers employed in industrial establishments, are considered more in the light of employés than of workmen, and in disputes between the masters and the men, they generally side with the former. This intermediate class is certainly one of importance and influence in the social and economical questions which are constantly

arising between the representatives of capital and labour, and yet it is by no means treated with the consideration which it deserves. The reason is that there is always an abundance of educated men in this country who are only too glad to be able to obtain employment of this kind. The salaries paid to persons of this class are just sufficient to provide them with the means of living in tolerable comfort, but they are considerably lower than what are paid to a similar class in every other country.

Porters, loaders, packers, and such like labourers who are employed to do heavy work of all kinds, whether for commercial and industrial establishments, or in seaports and inland towns, or in connection with any branch of public traffic and transport, generally earn good and even high wages in this country, as the great physical strength required for this sort of labour is rare enough to prevent the labour market from being overstocked. These people soon save a sufficient sum of money to enable them to set up an independent business as carriers, small shopkeepers, &c. Examples of this kind are numberless, but at the same time, drunkenness is the bane and ruin of many of them.

Day-labourers ("Tagelöhner") in the towns, men who work first for one person and then for another, are generally well off if they are known to a tolerably large circle of employers, as the wages paid to this class of labourers in towns are high. If the labourer is known only to a few employers, he is very often left without work and falls into pauperism. The "Tagelöhner" are employed both in town and country in cleaning the streets, in making roads and railways, felling timber, sawing wood, &c.

Workwomen in the towns, including all those not employed in coarse manual labour, such as sempstresses, milliners, embroiderers, and the like, are divided into two classes differing from each other very much both as regards their material and social condition. Those who, from not being able to obtain private employment, are obliged to work for the large shops, clothing establishments, fringe makers, &c., are miserably paid, owing to the demand for this species of employment being so much in excess of what is required to meet the wants of the public, in spite of the constant changes in the

fashions. The bulk of workwomen of this class, unless they are very clever at work, and have some means of their own wherewith to buy a sewing machine, take to prostitution. Workwomen of the other class, on the other hand, who succeed in getting a good private connection, go out to work in private houses or work at home, and are able to earn a comfortable subsistence, and to save money. As a general rule their moral conduct contrasts favourably with that of their less fortunate fellow-workwomen.

Having given a general sketch of the condition and leading characteristics of the various groups into which the industrial classes of this country are divided, I will now proceed to sketch in detail some of the most important points, a knowledge of which is essential in forming a correct estimate of their material condition. This detailed information relates to the following subjects :—

1. Their mode of living, and what is required for the annual support of a working man's family, including lodging, firing, and clothing.
2. The description of houses and lodgings generally occupied by them.
3. The rates of wages which they receive.
4. The school system with reference to the industrial classes.
5. Workmen's associations and their social movements.

I.—*Annual Cost of Living of a Working Man and his Family.*

The Statistical Department in Berlin in the year 1860 obtained through the agency of the provincial authorities certain official statistical Returns relating to these subjects, which afford materials from which I have been enabled to extract the subjoined minute information, showing what is annually required for the support of the families of the working classes in various provinces of the Kingdom.

The calculations are made on a presumed average of 4, 5, and 6 persons to each family, whereas in a tabular

Statement which I have given at the beginning of my Report every male workman personally engaged in labour is set down as being on the average charged with the maintenance of only 3 to 4 persons, himself included. To explain this apparent contradiction I must state that more than half of the whole number of male labourers personally employed are single men, and consequently the average, in that respect, of 3 to 4 dependents to each workman was a correct one.

By examining and comparing the Returns of the rates of wages which immediately follow the Returns showing what is annually required for the support of a working man and his family, a correct estimate may be formed of the sufficiency or insufficiency of the workman's earnings to meet the necessary cost of living, and whether any surplus remains for requirements of a less pressing nature, or is available for a savings fund. Also to what extent the wives or children, if they are of an age to work, are able to contribute to the support of the family, and lastly, how far the poor rates or private benevolence must come to their aid.

The following Returns deal for the most part with the years 1860 to 1864, before the aggrandizement of the Prussian Monarchy, but their value as statistical data is not, or but little, affected by this.

Provinces, Districts, &c.	Number of Persons of which the Family consists.	Annual Sum required to support a Working Man and his Family.															
		Subsistence.		Lodging.		Firing.		Clothes.		Articles of Household use, and Tools.		Taxes and School Money.		Total.			
		£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.		
I.—Province of Prussia (average of 17 Returns):																	
a. Administrative District of Gumbinnen—																	
Rural districts	4 to 5	9 0	to 12 0	1 10	...	0 18	...	2 17	to 4 10	0 9	to 1 10	0 6	...	15 0	to 20 14		
Towns	4 5	15 0	...	1 16	...	1 16	...	3 0	...	0 18	...	0 9	...	22 19	...		
b. Administrative District of Königsberg—																	
Rural districts	5	6 0	15 0	0 18	to 2 14	0 12	to 1 16	2 2	4 10	0 9	1 10	0 6	to 0 18	10 7	26 8		
Small towns	5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	27 0	...		
Town of Memel	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	22 10	25 10		
Town of Königsberg	...	27 0	...	4 10	...	1 4	...	2 8	...	0 12	...	0 6	...	36 0	...		
c. Administrative District of Dantzig—																	
Rural districts	...	12 18	15 0	1 4	1 16	...		3 0	4 10	0 18	...	0 6	...	18 6	22 10		
d. Administrative District of Marienwerder—																	
Rural districts	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	15 0	...		
Towns	...	9 0	10 16	1 16	...	1 4	...	2 2	2 5	...		0 9	0 12	14 11	16 13		
II.—Province of Posen (average of 15 Returns):																	
a. Administrative District of Bromberg—																	
Rural districts	...	7 10	...	1 16	...	1 16	...	6 0	...	1 4	...	0 6	...	18 12	...		
b. Administrative District of Posen—																	
Rural Districts and small towns	5	6 0	16 10	0 15	2 5	0 12	3 0	1 4	4 10	0 3	1 19	0 4	0 15	8 18	28 19		
III.—Province of Silesia (average of 31 Returns):																	
a. Administrative District of Liegnitz—																	
Rural districts	3 to 5	7 10	13 1	0 18	2 5	0 18	2 2	0 12	3 9	0 3	1 10	0 6	0 15	10 7	23 2		
Small towns	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	18 0	24 0		
Town of Görlitz	4 to 5	15 0	16 16	4 16	5 5	...		2 14	3 3	0 12	...	0 18	...	24 0	26 14		
b. Administrative District of Breslau—																	
Rural districts	4 5	7 10	14 8	0 15	2 5	0 12	2 2	0 15	4 10	0 3	1 4	0 3	0 18	9 18	25 7		
Manufacturing districts	...	12 0	16 10	2 2	3 0	0 18	1 7	3 0	6 0	0 9	3 0	0 6	0 12	18 15	30 9		
Small towns	4	7 10	18 0	0 1	3 15	0 15	2 5	1 4	6 0	0 3	3 15	0 3	0 15	10 13	30 6		
c. Administrative District of Appeln—																	
Rural districts	5	11 8	1 10	0 18	1 7	0 9	1 4	1 16	2 14	0 12	...	0 6	...	15 9	19 13		

Provinces, Districts, &c.	Annual Sum required to support a Working Man and his Family.																	
	Number of Persons of which the Family consists.	Subsistence.		Lodging.		Firing.		Clothes.		Articles of Household use, and Tools.		Taxes and School Money.		Total.	
		£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.
IV.—Province of Pomerania (average of 7 Returns):															
a. Administrative District of Köslin—															
Rural districts and small towns	5 to 6	7 10	to 15 0	1 16	to 2 11	1 4	to 1 16	1 10	to 3 0	0 3	to 0 18	0 9	to 0 12	12 12	to 23 17
b. Administrative District of Stettin—															
Rural districts and small towns	4 5	7 10	10 10	0 18	3 0	0 18	1 16	1 19	...	0 6	...	0 15	...	12 6	18 6
V.—Province of Brandenburg (average of 6 Returns):															
a. Administrative District of Potsdam—															
Rural districts and small towns	5 6	12 0	18 0	0 9	1 16	0 9	1 10	1 10	7 10	0 9	0 15	0 12	0 18	15 9	30 9
b. Administrative District of Frankfort—															
Rural districts and small towns	4 5	10 10	21 0	1 10	2 5	0 12	2 8	2 5	3 0	0 15	1 10	0 12	...	16 4	30 15
VI.—Province of Saxony (average of 18 Returns):															
a. Administrative District of Magdeburg—															
Rural districts and small towns	5 6	10 10	17 11	1 10	2 14	0 15	1 16	2 5	7 10	0 6	1 10	0 6	0 15	15 12	31 16
Town of Oschersleben	5	15 12	...	2 5	3 15	1 10	...	7 10	...	0 18	...	0 15	...	28 10	30 0
Town of Magdeburg	5	18 0	...	3 15	4 10	1 10	...	4 10	...	0 15	...	0 15	...	30 0	...
b. Administrative District of Merseburg—															
Rural districts and small towns	4 to 6	9 0	24 6	1 4	2 14	1 4	3 0	1 16	4 19	0 12	1 10	0 6	1 4	14 2	37 13
c. Administrative District of Erfurt—															
Rural districts, &c.	4 6	9 0	13 10	0 15	2 11	0 18	2 2	1 4	3 6	0 6	1 10	0 3	0 12	12 6	23 11
Town of Nordhausen	...	14 2	16 10	2 14	3 6	1 7	2 5	1 10	3 0	0 3	0 9	0 9	0 15	20 5	26 5
VII.—Province of Westphalia (average of 16 Returns):															
a. Administrative District of Minden—															
Rural districts and small towns	5 to 6	10 10	13 10	1 10	1 16	0 15	1 16	2 5	3 0	0 9	1 1	0 9	0 15	15 18	21 18
Bielefeld and Paderborn	...	...		...		...		...		...		...		18 0	27 0
b. Administrative District of Münster															
Rural districts and small towns	5 7	7 10	18 0	1 4	4 10	1 1	3 0	1 10	4 19	0 15	1 16	0 7	0 15	12 7	33 0
Town of Münster	...	12 15	13 10	3 0	3 15	0 15	...	2 5	3 0	0 15	...	0 15	...	20 5	22 10
c. Administrative District of Arnsberg—															
Circle and town of Lippstadt	5	12 12	14 2	1 16	2 14	1 16	2 5	3 15	4 10	0 9	...	0 18	1 4	21 6	25 4

Provinces, Districts, &c.	Number of Persons of which the Family consists.	Annual Sum required to support a Working Man and his Family.															
		Subsistence.		Lodging.		Firing.		Clothing.		Articles of Household use, and Tools.		Taxes and School Money,		Total.			
		£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.		
III.—Rhenish Provinces (33 Returns):																	
a. Administrative District of Düsseldorf—																	
Circle of Essen. Northern part	5	26 5	...	3 18	...	1 16	...	4 10	...	0 15	...	0 15	...	37 19	...		
„ Southern part	5	22 13	...	3 0	...	1 16	...	4 10	...	0 15	...	0 15	...	33 9	...		
Solingen. Manufacturing part ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	30 0	to	36 0	
„ other parts	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	24 0		28 10	
Mettman. Manufacturing districts ...	5	18 15	...	3 0	...	3 0	...	3 15	..	0 15	...	0 15	...	30 0		...	
Düsseldorf	5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	22 10		30 0	
Towns in Rees district	5	18 0	...	2 8	to 3 0	0 18	...	2 11	...	0 7	...	0 15	...	24 19		25 11	
Country districts of ditto	5	13 10	...	1 10	...	0 18	...	2 2	...	0 7	...	0 9	...	18 16		...	
Town of Reuss. Labourers	4	10 10	to 12 0	1 16	2 14	0 18	to 1 4	3 3	to 4 4	0 3	to 0 6	0 9	to 0 15	16 19		21 3	
„ Mechanics	4	13 10	15 0	3 0	5 8	1 4	1 10	6 0	7 16	0 9	0 12	1 4	1 10	25 7		31 16	
Rural districts	4 to 5	10 10	12 0	1 10	2 5	0 18	1 4	1 10	3 3	0 6	0 15	0 9	0 15	15 3		20 2	
b. Administrative District of Cologne—																	
Rural districts of Cologne	5	22 10	...	3 0	...	1 16	...	3 0	...	0 15	...	0 9	...	31 10		...	
Town of Deutz	5	27 0	...	4 10	...	1 16	...	3 0	...	...	...	0 9	...	36 15		...	
„ of Cologne	6	39 12	...	6 15	...	2 14	...	9 6	...	0 18	...	2 5	...	61 10		...	
„ of Bonn	5	21 0	...	4 10	...	1 16	...	2 5	...	...	...	0 9	...	30 0		...	
Rural districts and small towns	5 to 6	15 0	19 10	2 5	3 0	1 10	2 11	2 5	4 10	0 6	0 15	0 6	1 4	21 12		31 10	
c. Administrative District of Aix-la-Chapelle—																	
Rural districts and small towns	4 5	10 10	16 1	1 10	3 15	0 18	1 10	1 16	3 6	0 6	0 9	0 6	0 15	15 6		25 16	
In the manufacturing district of Eupen ...	6	...	...	2 14	3 0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	36 0		...	
d. Administrative District of Coblentz—																	
Rural Districts and small towns	5 to 6	18 0	19 10	2 5	...	1 16	3 18	2 8	4 10	0 15	1 1	1 4	1 10	26 8		32 14	
e. Administrative District of Treves—																	
Rural districts and small towns	4 6	10 10	19 10	1 16	3 15	1 4	2 5	2 5	7 1	0 9	2 5	0 6	2 2	16 10		36 18	
Town of Treves	5	16 10	...	4 4	...	3 0	...	6 0	...	1 4	...	0 12	...	31 10		...	

To show the bases upon which the foregoing calculations are framed, and at the same time to give a general idea of the style of living prevalent amongst the working classes, more particularly in the country disticts, I subjoin a few details extracted from the Reports of the provincial authorities showing the nature and quantities of the food required in different parts of the country for their annual sustenance, with the prices in English currency.

Province of Posen.

Administrative Circle of Adelnau.—An artizan's family, consisting of two or three children, requires annually for food, 22½ bushels of rye, value 3*l.* 15*s.*; 70 bushels of potatoes at 3*l.* 15*s.*; cabbages 15*s.*; millet, peas, grits, wheaten flour, salt, &c., 10*l.* 10*s.*; meat and butter, 8*l.* 5*s.*: total, 27*l.*

Province of Pomerania.

Circle of Oels.—An artizan's family requires annually 1⅞ bushels of wheat, 7*s.* 6*d.*; 22½ bushels of rye at 3*l.*; 6 bushels of barley at 12*s.*; 3 bushels of peas at 8*s.*; 60 bushels of potatoes, 1*l.* 10*s.*; 30 lbs. of butter, 18*s.*; milk, 18*s.*; beer and brandy, 18*s.*; meat 1*l.* 10*s.*; salt 13*s.* 6*d.*; food for a goat and a pig, 15*s.*: total 11*l.* 10*s.*

Circle of Neurode.—On the assumption that the food of the working classes in this Circle, consists chiefly in bread, potatoes, peas, millet, grits, milk, butter-milk, &c., the cost of an adult's food daily is from 4⅕*d.* to 4⅘*d.* The cost of living for a working man with a family of 3 or 4 children, including rent and fuel, may be set down at the lowest at 9½ a day, or something under 15*l.* a-year.

Circle of Pless.—A day labourer's family ("Tagelöhner") requires annually, 15 bushels of rye at 2*l.* 5*s.*; 144 bushels of potatoes at 5*l.* 15*s.* 2*d.*; cabbages, 15*s.*; milk, 18*s.*; butter, 1*l.* 4*s.*; salt, 1*l.* 4*s.*: total, 13*l.* 4*s.* 2*d.*

The families of iron workers and factory operatives, require additional meat, milk, and butter to the amount of about 3*l.* in value.

Province of Prussia.

Circle of Stendel.—A working man's family consisting of five persons requires annually, 27 bushels of rye, 5*l.* 8*s.*; 72 bushels of potatoes, 2*l.* 8*s.*; a pig, 2*l.* 8*s.*; food for two goats, 12*s.*; 50 lbs. of butter, 1*l.* 16*s.*: total 12*l.* 12*s.*

Circle of Wernigerode.—A family consisting of five persons consumes annually, 27 bushels of rye, 5*l.* 8*s.*; 72 bushels of potatoes, 4*l.* 1*s.*; a pig, 3*l.*; 52 lbs. of butter, 2*l.* 12*s.*; food for two goats, 12*s.*: total, 15*l.* 13*s.*

Province of Westphalia.

Circle of Rechlinghausen.—Bread, 6*l.*; vegetables, potatoes, and butter, 3*l.* 15*s.*; meat, 3*l.* 15*s.*: total, 13*l.* 10*s.*

Circle of Koesfeld.—Families of working-men in towns consisting of five persons, require for their annual consumption, supposing them to have a garden, black bread, 2*l.* 14*s.*; white bread, 6*s.*; meat, 1*l.* 16*s.*; milk, 6*s.*; coffee, 6*s.*; chicory, 6*s.*; salt and groceries, 3*s.*; butter, 18*s.*; potatoes and vegetables, 15*s.*: total, 7*l.* 10*s.*

Circle of Lippstedt.—A working man's family residing in the town requires annually in food, 75 bushels of potatoes, 5*l.* 10*s.*; 27 bushels of bread corn, 5*l.* 17*s.*; meat and butter, 2*l.* 14*s.*: total, 14*l.* 1*s.* In the country the total is about 12*l.* 13*s.*

Rhenish Province.

Circle of Essen.—The prices of many articles of food and necessaries of life are higher in the northern than in the southern part of the Circle. The quantities and prices of food annually required for a working-man's family in the two divisions of the Circle are as follows:—

Articles of Food.	Northern Part of the Circle.				Southern Part of the Circle.			
	Quantities.	Value.			Quantities.	Value.		
		£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Buckwheat and wheat flour	100 lbs.	1	0	0	104 lbs.	1	0	9½
Bread	1,800 ,,	7	10	0	1,820 ,,	8	3	9½
Potatoes	2,600 ,,	4	0	5	30 bushels	2	16	0
Pulse	36 measures	0	8	5	52 measures	0	13	0
Rice, grits, &c. ..	90 lbs.	1	0	0	26 lbs.	0	6	10½
Vegetables	..	0	18	0	..	1	11	2½
Meat and bacon ..	200 lbs.	5	6	0	78 lbs.	2	4	2½
Butter	90 ,,	3	12	0	78 ,,	3	2	5
Milk..	180 quarts	1	7	0	100 quarts	0	15	0
Salt	26 lbs.	0	5	2½	26 lbs.	0	5	2½
Coffee, &c.	..	0	18	0	..	0	18	0
Total ..	..	26	5	0½	..	21	16	6

Circle of Geilenkirchen.—A family of five persons, including three children under 14, requires for its consumption annually, 1,725 lbs. of bread, costing 7*l.* 12*s.*; butter, 2*l.* 8*s.* 7*d.*; coffee or its substitute, 18*s.*; 36 bushels of potatoes, 2*l.* 14*s.*; suet, oil, vinegar, and salt, 1*l.* 16*s.* 5*d.*; rent of cabbage garden, 12*s.*: total, 16*l.* 1*s.*

Circle of Gummersbach.—A family of five persons requires for its annual consumption 1,800 lbs. of potatoes, at 3*l.* 15*s.*; 1,200 lbs. of bread, 4*l.* 19*s.*; 300 lbs. of flour (chiefly oatmeal), 2*l.* 14*s.*; 26 lbs. of butter, 1*l.* 1*s.*; 10 lbs. of bacon, 6*s.*; 180 quarts of milk, 1*l.* 4*s.*; coffee and salt, 1*l.* 1*s.*; vegetables, 15*s.*; meat (on Sundays and holidays) 1*l.* 10*s.*: total, 17*l.* 5*s.*

Circle of Jülich.—The principal food of the working classes consists of potatoes, bread, and coffee. Meat is generally eaten only on holidays.

Circle of Montjoie.—Similar to the foregoing. The daily consumption per head is reckoned at 1 lb. of rye-bread, 2 lbs. of potatoes, 1 oz. of meat, ½ oz. of salt, ⅙ oz. of coffee.

Circle of Ohrweiler.—A working man's family consumes annually 2,190 lbs. of bread, 9*l.* 18*s.*; 2,920 lbs. of potatoes, 3*l.* 12*s.*; meat, suet, salt, butter, flour, 3*l.* 12*s.*; coffee and chicory, 18*s.*: total, 18*l.*

Circles of Wittlich and Bernkassel.—The working classes live almost entirely on bread, potatoes, vegetables, grease, salt, and coffee.

The foregoing particulars relating to the various articles of food required by the families of the working

classes in different localities are founded more or less upon conjecture, and in some instances probably the calculations are not strictly accurate, but they vary little from each other, and when they do vary the difference is clearly traceable to the special circumstances of the locality, such as its general state of prosperity, the price of provisions, and rates of wages. The Returns, therefore, upon the whole, may be taken as approximatively true.

II.—*Dwellings of the Working Classes.*

It is almost impossible to describe in general terms the character of the houses occupied by the working classes in Prussia, varying so widely as they do in different localities. What may be true of the houses in one place is altogether inapplicable to those of another, and even of others in the same locality or in the neighbourhood. The subjoined account, although necessarily imperfect, will serve to give an idea of the general class of habitations in which the labouring population lives.

In the large towns the artizan classes live almost exclusively in lodgings, and it is rarely that the independent artizan or small tradesman lives in a house of his own, whereas in the country and in the small towns the latter is more frequently the rule than the exception. The houses inhabited by the rural artizans, labourers, hand-loom weavers, &c., both as regards their structure and living arrangements, are generally of the poorest kind, especially in the eastern provinces. Labourers, factory operatives, miners, &c., are frequently obliged, even in the country, to live in lodgings or else in buildings expressly constructed for working men by the large landed proprietors in the eastern provinces, and by the mill-owners and proprietors of mines and ironworks, and companies in the western provinces. In many districts in the west, joint-stock building companies and co-operative building societies have been established with the object of supplying the want of proper dwellings in particular localities; they purchase

land with the subscribed capital and erect dwellings suitable for working men and their families, and then let them at a moderate rent, frequently with the option of purchase by the payment of a certain annual sum for interest and sinking fund in addition to the rent.

The provincial authorities of the eight provinces of which Prussia was composed previous to the late war, have furnished the following particulars relating to the dwellings of the working classes in their several Departments. They date back as far as 1864, but they are the latest which exist.

Province of Prussia.

1. *Circle of Memel.*—The dwellings of the workmen in the rural districts are poor and inadequate in the extreme. The houses are of one story, built of mud, and some even of grass; the windows are nailed up and never opened. They contain in general one dwelling-room and a sleeping-room frequently unfloored.

2. *Circle of Königsberg.*—The houses of the working classes are usually built for two families, and houses lately have been built for four families of labourers. In these each family has a dwelling-room, with a stove for cooking, one bedroom and a loft, and either a stable or pigstye.

3. *Town of Königsberg.*—The Building Board insists on light and space being properly attended to in the erection of new dwelling-houses.

4. *Circle of Gerdauen.*—In the small country towns several families often live together in one room. Of late years, however, there has been much improvement both in the structure of the houses and in the internal arrangements.

5. *Circle of Seidenberg.*—In the towns several families frequently live together in small, dark, and damp rooms. The want of dwellings for the poorer classes is very much felt.

Province of Posen.

Circle of Samter.—In consequence of the garrison rents have risen immensely. Labourers' families have

to pay annually from 3*l.* to 3*l.* 15*s.* for the rent of a wretched room.

Province of Silesia.

1. *Circle of Görlitz.*—Rents have risen in the town of Görlitz at the rate of 10 per cent. every five years for the last twenty years.

2. *Circle of Leignitz.*—In many of the rural communes the houses are thatched, of one story, and with small windows admitting little light and air. The interiors low, dark, and contracted, with close and bad air.

3. *Circle of Balkenhain.*—The weavers' houses in the country usually contain from two to three living-rooms and one or two bed-rooms. One room is only large enough to hold from one to three looms and but little furniture. The rooms are barely sufficiently high to stand upright in, and the windows are not more than 2 feet square.

4. *Circle of Oels.*—A great improvement has taken place in the dwelling-houses as regards health and comfort; but rents are rising.

5. *Circle of Reichenbach.*—The houses in the more important manufacturing districts are overcrowded with weavers, and rents are high. The number of houses does not increase in proportion to the growth of the population.

6. *Circle of Münsterberg.*—One room is seldom inhabited by more than one family. A living and bed-room in the country costs 6*s.* to 1*l.* 4*s.* a-year, and in the manufacturing district as much as 3*l.* 12*s.* In the town of Münsterberg a single room costs from 18*s.* to 1*l.* 10*s.* annually.

7. *Circle of Pless.*—Several labourers' families (from ten to fifteen persons) frequently live in one room. There is no pretension to comfort or cleanliness. In the country the annual cost of a room is from 18*s.* to 2*l.* 5*s.*

Province of Brandenburg.

Circle of Templin.—A marked improvement has taken place in the dwelling-houses, particularly as regards

space. In the town of Lychen a working-man's family pays 2*l.* 14*l.*, in Templin 3*l.* 12*s.*, and in Zeldenich 4*l.* 10*s.* per annual house-rent.

Province of Saxony.

1. *Circle of Staumberg.*—With the exception of the village of Altenburg, where the inhabitants are crowded together more than is consistent with health, the space in the dwelling-houses for families is double what it was forty years ago.

2. *Circle of Schlensingen.*—In the populous parts of the mountainous district several families frequently live together in one room.

Province of Westphalia.

1. *Circle of Minden.*—There is a great dearth of dwelling-houses in the country, and some of the Communes have erected in consequence what are called "Communal houses," or "houses for the poor." In the town of Minden itself this want is most severely felt, and a working-man's family has to pay from 6*l.* to 7*l.* 10*s.* for house-rent annually.

2. *Circle of Paderborn.*—There is a deficiency of dwelling-houses, particularly for the lower classes. They are forced to live in confined spaces at high rents.

3. *Circle of Ahaus.*—The dwellings of the labouring classes are confined within the smallest possible limits; they generally consist of a kitchen, a living-room, place for a few beds, a cellar or a garret, and a stall for a cow, goat, or pig. The rooms are small and low, and frequently damp.

4. *Circle of Koesfeld.*—The dwelling-house of a working man's family consists usually of a kitchen, living-room, one or two sleeping-rooms, and a cellar or loft, with a shed for a goat. The rooms are small and low. House-rent in the towns is from 1*l.* 10*s.* to 2*l.* 8*s.* annually.

Rhenish Province.

1. *Circle of Essen.*—The workmen in the coal mines from a colony in the vicinity of the mines, consisting of

as many as 100 houses. House-rent for the working classes in the towns is from 3*l.* to 3*l.* 15*s.*, and in the country from 2*l.* 5*s.* to 3*l.* annually. The families of working men are often pinched for room in consequence of their taking in other workmen as boarders. The latter sleep in the garret, but otherwise live with the family in one or two rooms.

2. *Circle of Daun.*—The houses of the day-lahourers ("Tagelöhner") are mostly bad, small, and so densely crowded, that, without great attention to ventilation and cleanliness, sickness is sure to prevail.

3. *Circle of Ottweiler.*—In the mining colonies lately established here the houses of the miners are neat and cheerful. The three Royal coal mines of Heinitz have three large sleeping-houses belonging to them to accommodate 800 men. The Rheden mine has two of these, for the accommodation of 400 men. The miners pay 1*s* 6*d.* a month, for which they have a bed and towels and the use of half a press. To enable miners to settle in the neighbourhood the Miners' Union ("Knappschaftsverein") has purchased 1,350 acres of land for founding a mining colony. It sells at cost price, or leases at a moderate rent one-sixth of an acre of land to anyone who will build a house upon it, and one-sixth of an acre on the same terms for a garden. Money for building purposes is also advanced at 4 per cent. interest, to be deducted from the wages, with a present of from 22*l.* 10*s.* to 30*l.* as a premium for building. From the year 1842 to 1861, within the district of the Saarbruck Miners' Union, 1,499 miners' houses were built in this way, for which 58,159*l.* was advanced and 22,626*l.* given in premiums.

The following particulars relating to the city of Berlin are extracted from the Report accompanying the census which was taken December 3, 1867 :—

The population of Berlin at the abovementioned date consisted of 351,253 males and 348,728 females, in all 700,081 persons, exclusive of 2,060 persons forming the river population, and exclusive of the Diplomatic Body. The number of building sites covered with houses was 13,656, containing 13,376 houses with frontage to the streets, and 7,484 houses built facing the courtyards, so that there is upon an average 51 to 52 inhabitants to every building site and 33 to 34 to every house out of a

total of 141,756 households, 110,417 occupied houses with frontage to the street, and 42,224 houses built at the back. The number of over-crowded dwellings with six or more persons living in one room, and ten or more persons living in two rooms amounted to 15,574, occupied by 111,280 persons living in 16,489 rooms capable of being heated. The average, therefore, in these over-crowded dwellings was of 6 to 7 persons in one room. The 111,280 persons abovementioned consisted of 31,980 married people and their relations, 58,736 children, 1,997 servants, 2,270 apprentices and youths, 1,006 male and 587 female lodgers, 11,329 male and 2,084 night-lodgers ("Schlafleute"), and 1,291 other persons.

The following details specially relating to the lodgings of the industrial and labouring classes in Berlin are worthy of notice :—

Occupations.	Number of Individual Employers of Labour.		The Total Number of Persons individually employed was divided as to Residence as follows:—									
			Living with the Employer.		In their own Lodgings.		In the Houses of their Families or Relations.		In Furnished Lodgings.		As Night Lodgers.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1. Agriculture, forest cultivation, &c.	1,008	10	324	3	194	5	197	1	100	..	185	1
2. Manufactures, trade, and building.	102,035	28,787	11,571	371	39,603	9,587	18,272	10,229	4,219	2,878	28,370	5,722
3. Commerce	16,107	1,533	2,193	433	2,574	346	5,937	495	4,613	157	790	102
4. Traffic	8,077	413	1,127	57	4,424	223	513	23	777	31	1,236	79
5. Personal service	15,596	42,639	5,869	40,052	6,438	951	856	577	218	283	2,215	776
Total	142,823	73,382	21,084	40,916	53,233	11,112	25,778	11,325	9,930	3,349	32,798	6,680

Occupations.	Living in			
	Furnished Lodgings.		As Night Lodgers.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Commercial people, artizans, persons engaged in trade and industry..	9,017	..	23,125	..
Workmen, day labourers, servants	600	1,199	10,077	3,052
Dressmakers, sempstresses, milliners, shopwomen, &c.	..	2,444	..	3,811
Other occupations	8,723	2,399	1,833	1,598
Total	18,340	6,042	35,035	8,461

Rents in Berlin naturally vary widely according to the situation of the house, the floor on which the apartment is situated, and internal arrangements, &c.

Unfurnished lodgings for a working-man and his family, consisting of one to two rooms with a fireplace (stove), kitchen and sleeping-room, cost from 4*l.* 10*s.* to 15*l.* a-year. Sleeping accommodation for one person costs about 3*s.* to 4*s.* 6*d.* monthly; this includes a bed and washing apparatus.

Without going into further details on this subject, I subjoin a few figures showing the number of houses in Berlin, with the number of persons inhabiting different portions of them.

	Houses with a Frontage to the Street.		Houses in the Court-yard.	
	No. of Apartments.	Inhabitants.	No. of Apartments.	Inhabitants.
On the Basement story	11,514	51,158	2,778	11,216
Entresol	760	2,534	189	639
Ground floor	20,636	98,207	8,609	31,195
First floor	24,036	110,523	11,571	49,510
Second floor	24,377	108,087	9,371	40,904
Third floor	20,636	89,324	6,922	30,104
Fourth and higher ..	8,458	35,420	2,784	11,579
Total	110,417	495,253	42,224	179,147
Apartments without rooms that can be heated	1,533	4,241	732	1,850
Ditto with one room ditto ..	44,579	166,490	30,393	122,830
Ditto with two ditto	30,258	137,621	9,182	43,697
Ditto with three ditto	16,247	79,184	1,296	6,962
Ditto with four ditto	7,450	38,422	345	1,859
Ditto with five to seven ditto ..	8,006	48,589	216	1,312
Ditto with eight and above ditto ..	2,344	20,706	60	637
Total	110,417	495,253	42,224	179,147

III.—*Wages.*

I have extracted from various and authentic sources, such information, as will be found below, upon the interesting and important question of the wages earned by the working-classes in the chief branches of industry in Prussia. I must preface them, however, by stating, that they must be considered only as generally and approximately accurate. The only statistical data which exist, and some of which date back to four or five years ago, are not always sufficiently specific for purposes of

minute statistical analysis. The rates of wages are too variously influenced by local circumstances, and by the fluctuations of trade and of the labour market to render it possible to draw up a complete and comprehensive statement on the subject.

Some valuable and interesting information as to the rates of wages in the factories and industrial establishments of the important manufacturing town of Barmen, in the Rhenish Province, contiguous to Elberfeld, has been collected and drawn up with evident practical knowledge by a resident manufacturer, and embodied in a Statistical Report for the years 1865 to 1867, published by order of the Town Council of Barmen.

The substance of this information is contained in the subjoined tabular Statement.

Rates of Wages in the Town of Barmen in the Years 1865 to 1867.

Trades.	Classification of Workmen.	Weekly Wages in the Years— 1865. £ s. d.	1866. £ s. d.	1867. £ s. d.	Hours of Work per Day.	Usual mode of Payment.
Turkey red yarn dyers	Journeymen	0 13 0	0 13 3	0 13 6	11	Weekly wages.
	Apprentices	0 6 0	0 7 0	0 7 6	,,	,,
	Workwomen	0 6 0	0 7 0	0 7 6	,,	,,
Colour dyers	Journeymen	0 13 6	0 15 0	0 15 0	,,	,,
	Apprentices	0 6 0	0 7 6	0 7 6	,,	,,
	Workwomen	0 6 0	0 7 6	0 7 6	,,	,,
	,, ...	0 9 0	0 9 0	0 9 0	,,	Piecework.
Dressing and finishing works ...	Dressers	0 18 0	1 1 0	1 1 0	,,	Weekly wages.
	Assistants	0 10 6	0 12 0	0 12 0	,,	,,
	Apprentices	0 6 0	0 7 6	0 9 0	,,	,,
Stuff printing works	Journeymen	0 12 0	0 12 9	0 13 0	11 to 11½	,,
	Apprentices	0 6 0	0 6 9	0 6 9	,,	,,
Piece dyers	Workmen	0 11 6	0 12 0	0 13 0	11	,,
Bleaching works.	Journeymen	0 11 3	0 12 0	0 13 6	11 to 11½	,,
	Apprentices	0 5 3	0 6 0	0 6 9	,,	,,
Knitting yarn and sewing thread ...	Workmen	0 18 0	0 18 0	0 18 0	11	Piecework.
	,, ...	0 16 0	0 16 0	0 16 0	,,	Weekly wages.
	Workwomen	0 9 0	0 9 0	0 9 0	,,	Piece work.
	,, ...	0 7 6	0 7 6	0 7 6	,,	Weekly wages.
	Boys ,, ...	0 7 6	0 7 6	0 7 6	*	,,
Silk goods manufactory	"Jacquard" workers ...	0 12 0 to 0 18 0	0 12 0 to 0 18 0	0 12 0 to 0 18 0	Uncertain.	Piecework.
	Treadle workers	0 6 0 to 0 12 0	0 6 0 to 0 12 0	0 6 0 to 0 12 0		
Zanalla textile fabrics	Workwomen	0 9 0	0 9 0	0 9 0	11 to 11½	,,
Lastings ditto	Workmen	0 12 0	0 13 6	0 15 0	,,	Weekly wages.
Lasting ditto	Workmen	0 12 0	0 13 0	0 13 0	11	,,
	Workwomen	0 10 6	0 10 6	0 10 6	,,	,,
	Girls	0 9 0	0 9 0	0 9 0	,,	,,
Cotton mill	†Weavers	0 7 6 to 0 11 0	0 9 6 to 0 14 6	0 10 0 to 0 15 6	About 12	Piecework.
Silk and woollen, ribbon, cord, and heald manufacturers	‡Master ribbon weavers—					
	Common sorts	1 4 0	1 4 0	1 4 0	,,	,,
	Better sorts	1 16 0	1 16 0	1 16 0	,,	,,
	Finest sorts	3 0 0	3 0 0	3 0 0	,,	,,
	Workmen	0 10 6 to 0 15 0	0 10 6 to 0 15 0	0 10 6 to 0 15 0	13	Weekly wages.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS:—

* As regards boys and girls (or "juvenile operatives") the hours of labour are limited in conformity with the regulations laid down by the Industrial Code ("Gewerbe Ordnung").

† The work is generally done by boys of from 15 to 17, and girls of from 16 to 20. There is a "winder" to every two looms, who earns 5*s.* 3*d.* to 6*s.*; this work is usually done, however, by the weaver's own family. In consequence of the high rate of wages this branch of manufacture is almost entirely ruined.

‡ Out of these wages are paid the journeyman and the winder; the former receives 40 per cent., and the latter usually earns 6*s.* to 7*s.* 6*d.* a week.

Trades.	Classification of Workmen.	Weekly Wages in the Years— 1865.	1866.	1867.	Hours of Work per Day.	Usual mode of Payment.	Observations.
Silk and woollen, ribbon, cord, and heald manufacturers—*continued*...		£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.			GENERAL OBSERVATIONS:—
	Workwomen	0 9 0	0 9 0	0 9 0	13	Weekly wages.	
	Female reel workers ...	0 10 6	0 10 6	0 10 6	,,	,,	
	Factory hands—						* As regards boys and girls (or "juvenile operatives,") the hours of labour are limited in conformity with the regulations laid down by the Industrial Code ("Gewerbe Ordnung").
	Workmen	{0 10 6 to 0 12 0}	0 10 6 to 0 12 0	0 10 6 to 0 12 0	10½	,,	
	Workwomen	0 9 0	0 9 0	0 9 0	,,	,,	
	†Master working with his own loom	...	...	...	...	...	
	‡Tape weaver, with his own loom...	{0 12 0 to 0 15 0}	0 18 0	0 16 6	12	Piecework.	† A loom ("Riementisch") with machinery of the newest construction costs £270, and produces weekly sufficient of plain staple articles to enable the master to earn £3 15*s.* in wages. From this have to be deducted 12*s.* a week for the journeyman, 3*s.* for a winder (one-third of a week), 7*s.* 6*d.* for power and rent of premises, 3*s.* for oil, and 4*s.* 6*d.* for reels, scissors, &c.; so that the master clears £2 5*s.*, and out of this he has to provide for the interest and sinking fund of the capital embarked in the concern. The machinery wears out fast, articles change often, and wages are frequently low, in consequence of which these small masters are ruined and the manufacturers set up large establishments of their own.
	Factory hands—						
	Workmen	{0 9 0 to 0 11 3}	0 9 0 to 0 11 3	0 9 0 to 0 11 3	10½	Weekly wages.	
	Workwomen	0 7 6	0 7 6	0 7 6	,,	,,	
	Boys	{0 3 0 to 0 6 0}	0 3 0 to 0 6 0	0 3 0 to 0 6 0	*	,,	
India-rubber manufactories. ...	I. Power loom weavers—						
	a. Journeymen	0 13 6	0 14 0	0 14 3	10½	,,	
	b. ,, ...	0 13 6	0 13 6	0 13 6	,,	,,	
	,, lowest piecework..	0 15 0	0 15 0	0 15 0	,,	Piecework.	
	,, highest ,, ...	1 13 0	1 13 0	1 13 0	,,	,,	
	c. Winders—Workmen ...	{0 10 6 to 0 12 9}	0 10 6 to 0 12 9	0 10 6 to 0 12 9	,,	,,	
	,, Workwomen ...	0 9 0	0 9 0	0 9 0	,,	,,	
	,, Boys	{0 7 6 to 0 9 0}	0 7 6 to 0 9 0	0 7 6 to 0 9 0	*	,,	
	II. Factory hands—						
	Binding room	{0 12 0 to 0 18 0}	0 12 0 to 0 18 0	0 12 0 to 0 18 0	10½	Weekly wages.	‡ These wages include an agreement that the wife and children undertake to do all the necessary handwork and to wind the woof. The labour may be set down as worth 1*s.* 2½*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* a week.
	Cutting room	{0 9 0 to 0 13 6}	0 9 0 to 0 13 6	0 9 0 to 0 13 6	,,	,,	
	Workwomen (reel workers) ...	0 7 6	0 8 3	0 9 0	,,	,,	
	§III. Out-workers	{1 4 0 to 2 8 0}	1 4 0 to 2 8 0	1 4 0 to 2 8 0	,,	?	§ They have to pay the journeyman out of these wages, at the rate, according to their work, of 1*s.* 2½*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* for every 3*s.* which they receive, and they have also to pay the winders.
	,, hand winders ...	{0 4 6 to 0 7 6}	0 4 6 to 0 7 6	0 4 6 to 0 7 6	,,	?	
	,, machine winders.	{0 6 0 to 0 12 0}	0 6 0 to 0 12 0	0 6 0 to 0 12 0	,,	?	
Soap and candle manufactories ...	Workmen	0 12 0	0 12 0	0 12 0	11	Weekly wages.	
	Workwomen	0 7 0	0 7 0	0 7 0	,,	,,	

Trades.	Classification of Workmen.	Weekly Wages in the Years— 1865. £ s. d.	1866. £ s. d.	1867. £ s. d.	Hours of Work per Day.	Usual mode of Payment.	Observations.
Chemical works...	Workmen—						GENERAL OBSERVATIONS:—
	At the reverberating furnace ...	1 0 0	1 0 0	1 0 0	10½	Weekl wages.	
	At the pyrites furnace ...	0 16 6	0 16 6	0 16 6	,,	,,	
	At the sulphate furnace ...	0 16 6	0 16 6	0 16 6	,,	,,	
	At other processes ...	0 14 3	0 14 3	0 14 3	,,	,,	
		0 16 6	0 16 6	0 16 6			
	Handicraftsmen	0 15 0	0 15 0	0 15 0	,,	,,	
		0 16 6	0 16 6	0 16 6			
	Drivers	0 13 6	0 13 6	0 13 6	,,	,,	
	Helpers	0 12 9	0 12 9	0 12 9	,,	,,	
Iron, steel, and hardware manufactories	Smiths	0 15 0	0 15 0	0 15 0	11	,,	
		0 12 0	0 12 0	0 12 0	,,	,,	
		0 15 0	0 15 0	0 15 0			
	Average workmen	0 12 0	0 12 0	0 12 0	,,	,,	
	Journeymen	0 7 10	0 7 10	0 7 10	,,	,,	
	Apprentices	0 4 6	0 4 6	0 4 6	,,	,,	
		0 9 0	0 9 0	0 9 0			
Iron foundries	Moulders	0 15 0	0 15 0	0 15 0	,,	,,	
	Journeymen	0 11 0	0 11 0	0 11 0	,,	,,	
Boiler and machine makers	Turners and locksmiths ...	0 15 0	0 15 0	0 15 0	12	,,	
	Boiler smiths	0 15 0	0 15 0	0 15 0	,,	,,	
	Smiths	0 16 6	0 16 6	0 16 6	,,	,,	
		0 18 0	0 18 0	0 18 0			
	Hammerers	0 12 0	0 12 0	0 12 0	,,	,,	
		0 13 6	0 13 6	0 13 6			
	Apprentices	0 7 6	0 7 6	0 7 6	,,	,,	
		0 10 6	0 10 6	0 10 6			
Percussion cap manufactories ...	Workmen	0 16 6	0 16 6	0 16 6	10½	,,	
	Workwomen	0 8 3	0 8 3	0 8 3	,,	,,	
Button manufactories	Boys and girls	0 3 0	0 3 0	0 3 0	*	Piecework.	
		0 4 6	0 4 6	0 4 6			
	Boys and girls from 17 to 20 years of age	0 6 0	0 6 0	0 6 0	11	,,	
		0 8 6	0 8 6	0 8 6			
	Cutters	0 10 0	0 10 0	0 10 0	,,	,,	
		0 13 0	0 13 0	0 13 0			
	Stampers, polishers, &c. ...	0 13 6	0 13 6	0 13 6	,,	,,	
		0 18 0	0 18 0	0 18 0			
	Turners	0 18 0	0 18 0	0 18 0	,,	,,	
		1 4 0	1 4 0	1 4 0	...	,,	
Plating works	Boys and girls	0 5 2	0 6 0	0 6 6	*	Weekly wages.	
	Workmen	0 15 0	0 15 9	0 16 0	?	,,	

* As regards boys and girls ("or juvenile operatives,") the hours of labour are limited in conformity with the regulations laid down by the Industrial Code ("Gewerbe Ordnung").

Trades.	Classification of Workmen.	Weekly Wages in the Years— 1865. £ s. d.	1866. £ s. d.	1867. £ s. d.	Hours of Work per Day.	Usual mode of Payment.
Whip manufactories	Boys and girls	0 6 0	0 6 7	0 6 7	*	Weekly wages.
	Workmen	0 10 6	0 11 3	0 11 3	11	,,
Pianoforte manufactory & organ building	Pianoforte makers	0 15 0	0 17 3	0 16 10	?	?
	Organ builders	0 14 6	0 15 11	0 17 6	?	?
	Other workmen	0 12 4½	0 13 6	0 15 0	?	?
Lithographic establishments	Workmen	0 15 0	0 15 0	0 15 0	10½	Weekly wages.
Letter-press printing offices	Type setters	0 16 6	0 16 6	0 18 0	10	,,
	Printers at daily wages	0 12 0	0 12 0	0 12 0	,,	,,
Bookbinding	Workmen	0 12 0	0 12 0	0 12 0	11½	,,
†	,,	0 5 0	0 5 0	0 5 0	,,	,,
Masons, builders, brickmakers, plasterers	Journeymen masons	0 12 0	0 13 2½	0 14 6	‡12	,,
	Assistants	0 9 0	0 9 9	0 10 6	,,	,,
	Carpenters	0 12 0	0 13 6	0 14 6	‡13	,,
	Well makers	0 15 0	0 15 0	0 15 0	12	Piecework.
Carpenters	Journeymen	0 10 6	0 12 0	0 13 6	,,	Weekly wages.
Painters, glaziers, &c.	,,	0 10 6	0 11 3	0 12 0	‡11	,,
Turners	,,	† 0 3 0	0 3 0	0 4 6	12 to 13	,,
Tinmen, varnishers, &c.	,,	† 0 4 6	0 5 0	0 5 0	,,	,,
Coppersmiths, braziers, &c.	,,	† 0 4 6	0 5 3	0 6 0	13 to 14	,,
	,,	0 10 6	0 11 3	0 12 0	12	,,
Tailors	,,	† 0 4 0	0 5 0	0 6 0	13 to 14	,,
	,,	0 12 0	0 13 6	0 15 0	,,	Piecework.
Capmakers	,,	† 0 4 6	0 5 3	0 6 0	,,	Weekly wages.
Shoemakers	,,	† 0 3 0	0 3 9	0 4 6	13	,,
	,,	† 0 6 0	0 6 9	0 7 6	,,	Piecework.
Saddlers	,,	† 0 4 0	0 4 0	0 4 6	,,	Weekly wages.
Bakers	,,	† 0 3 6	0 4 0	0 4 6	?	,,
Brewers	,,	† 0 4 6	0 5 3	0 6 0	?	,,
Coopers	,,	† 0 4 0	0 4 0	0 4 0	12½ to 13	,,
Slaters	,,	† 0 4 6	0 6 0	0 7 6	‡12½	,,
Millers	,,	0 12 0	0 12 9	0 13 6	13	,,
Rope makers	,,	† 0 3 6	0 3 6	0 3 6	,,	,,
Wheelwrights, frame makers	,,	† 0 3 0	0 3 0	0 3 9	,,	,,
Watchmakers	,,	† 0 4 6	0 5 3	0 6 0	11 to 12	Weekly wages, paid by month.
Jewellers	,,	† 0 6 0	0 6 0	0 6 0	12	Weekly wages.
Barbers, hairdressers	,,	† 0 3 0	0 3 0	0 3 0	?	,,
Job masters and carriers	†Drivers and carters	0 4 6	0 5 0	0 6 0	Uncertain.	,,
Gardeners	§Workmen	0 0 2⅜	0 0 2⅜	0 0 2⅜	,,	By the hour.
Locksmiths	†Journeymen	0 4 6	0 5 3	0 6 0	12 to 13	Weekly wages.
	,,	0 12 0	0 12 9	0 13 6	,,	,,

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS:—

* As regards boys and girls (or "juvenile operatives,") the hours of labour are limited in conformity with the regulations laid down by the Industrial Code ("Gewerbe Ordnung").

† These wages are exclusive of board and lodging, which are provided by the employer.

‡ The hours of work are shorter in winter, and the wages proportionately less.

§ These wages are paid for each hour's work.

Further particulars relating to the wages paid in the mines and iron-works of Upper Silesia, collected by Mr. Overgens, a civil engineer, in a professional tour which he made in August 1868, have been obligingly placed at my disposal. They are as follows :—

Mines and Works.	Class of Workmen.	Wages per Day.	No. of Hours Work per Day.	Observations.
		s. *d.*		
Coal mines ..	Pitmen	1 11½	12	
	Haulers ("Schlepper")	1 7½	12	
		s. *d.* *s.* *d.*		At one of the blast furnaces wages are regulated by the weekly produce of the furnace, and the weekly wages earned are as follows: Smelters, 12*s.* 8½*d.* to 1*l.* 1*s.* 11*d.* Chargers of furnaces, 10*s.* 11*d.* to 13*s.* Barrowmen, 7*s.* 2½*d.* to 12*s.* 6*d.*
Coke works ..	Workmen	1 3½ to 1 6	12	
	Workwomen ..	0 9½ 1 0	11	
Blast furnaces	1st Class smelters ..	2 9 3 0	12	
	2nd Class ditto ..	2 3 2 6	12	
	Chargers of furnaces ..	1 11 2 2½	12	
	Barrow-men, &c. ..	1 6 1 8½	12	
	Boiler-men	1 3½ 1 6	12	
	Engine-men ..	1 9 2 0	12	
Iron-rolling works	1st Class workman at the puddling furnaces	to 4 0	12	
	2nd Class ditto ..	2 3	12	
	3rd Class ditto ..	2 1¼	12	
Iron foundries	Moulders and assistant casters	2 7¼ 3 0	12	
	Masters directing the workmen at two cupola furnaces receive a monthly salary of 5*l.* 5*s.*, with a per-centage of ¾*d.* per cwt. of finished castings, altogether from 10*l.* 10*s.* to 12*l.* 15*s.* a-month.			

The periodical published by the Statistical Bureau of Berlin in 1868, contains (page 326) a paper written by Privy Councillor Jacobi, entitled "Wages in Lower Silesia." A reproduction (for the nature of the subject baffles analysis) of the voluminous details, extending to various branches of manufacture and trade would swell this Report to unreasonable limits, and I must content myself, therefore, with indicating the source where detailed information on the subject is to be found.

The following particulars, showing the number of workpeople employed and the rates of wages which they earn in different branches of manufacture and trade in the most important seats of industry in Prussia, are extracted from the Reports of the Chambers of Commerce for the year 1867 and 1868.

Province, Place.	Manufactories, &c.	Number of Workpeople Employed and Rates of Wages.
Province of Silesia—		
Breslau	Machine manufactory ..	316 workmen; average daily earnings, 2*s.* 1½*d.*
Königshuld	Wrought-iron goods	117 workmen; average yearly wages, 18*l.* 9*s.*
	Glass manufactory	200 workmen; daily wages, 1*s.* to 3*s.*
Münsterberg	Chemical works	150 workmen; daily wages, 1*s.* ts 2*s.* 9*d.*
	Coke works	20 workmen; daily wages, 1*s.* to 1*s.* 6*d.*
Breslau	Chemical manure works ..	80 to 90 workmen; daily wages, males, 1*s.* 2*d.* to 3*s.*, females, 6½*d.* to 1*s.*
Ohland	5 Cigar manufactories ..	350 males and females; weekly wages, 2*s.* to 15*s.*
Breslau	Woollen yarn manufactory ..	16 males, 6 females; weekly wages, 7*s.* 6*d.* to 18*s.*, and 4*s.* to 6*s.*
Schmiedeberg	Carpet manufactory	50 males, 200 females; weekly wages, 7*s.* 6*d.* to 12*s.*, and 3*s.* 9*d.* to 6*s.*
Hirschberg	Lace-bobbin mill	Lacemakers (females); weekly wages, 3*s.* to 6*s.*
Görlitz	Glass-works	200 workmen; daily wages, 1*s.* to 3*s.*
Landeshut	Sulphur mine	58 workmen; daily wages, 8¾*d.* to 1*s.* 3½*d.*
	Coal mine	52 workmen; daily wages, 1*s.* 3½*d.* to 1*s.* 11½*d.*
Lauban	Chemical bleach yard ..	40 workmen; weekly wages, 7*s.* 6*d.* to 9*s.*
	Anthracite mine	120 workers and 65 drift and earth-workers; average wages, 30*l.* and 70*l.* a-year.
Gozolin	Lime kiln	Daily wages, 1*s.* to 1*s.* 2½*d.*
Altwasser	Porcelain manufactory ..	1,500 workmen; weekly wages, average 10*s.* 6*d.* to 12*s.*
Rauscher	Glass-works	180 workmen; daily wages, 1*s.* to 3*s.*
Merzdorf	Chemical works	Wages, 10*d.* to 1*s.* 5*d.* a-day.
	Sulphuric acid works ..	Wages, 10*d.* to 1*s.* 5*d.* a-day.
Waldenburg	Coke works	Wages, 1*s.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* a-day.
Schmiedeberg	Shawl, plush, and chenille manufactory	Wages, 3*s.* 9*d.* to 15*s.* a-week.
Reinerz	Shoe tacks, &c.	Wages, by piecework, for grown-up workmen, 8½*d.* to 2*s.*, for youths, 5½*d.* to 9½*d.*
Province of Brandenburg—		
Berlin	Carriage manufactory ..	1,416 workmen; average yearly wages, 49*l.* 16*s.*
Province of Saxony—		
Magdeburg	Cotton spinning factory ..	318 workmen; total yearly wages, 5,741*l.*, average per head, 18*l.*
	7 Machine manufactories ..	934 ,, ,, 41,438*l.*, ,, 44*l.* 8*s.*
Bückau	1 Ditto	400 ,, ,, 14,641*l.*, ,, 35*l.* 8*s.*
Province of Hanover—		
Lüneburg	Saltworks	119 workmen; total yearly wages, 2,715*l.*, average per head, 23*l.* 16*s.*
	Iron smelting furnace ..	238 ,, ,, 6,846*l.* 9*s.*, ,, 28*l.* 16*s.*

Province, Place.	Manufactories, &c.	Number of Workpeople Employed and Rates of Wages.
Province of Hanover (*contd.*)		
Lüneburg	Lime pit	64 workmen; total yearly wages, 804*l.*, average per head, 12*l.* 12*s.*
	Cement manufactory.. ..	100 to 130 ,, ,, 3,750*l.*, ,, 34*l.* 1*s.*
	Soda manufactory	100 ,, ,, 3,150*l.*, ,, 31*l.* 10*s.*
	Artificial manure manufactory..	25 ,, ,, 480*l.*, ,, 19*l.* 4*s.*
	Mohair manufactory.. ..	120 ,, ,, 3,450*l.*, ,, 23*l.* 16*s.*
	Paper manufactory	8 to 10 ,, ,, 375*l.*, ,, 20*l.* 1*s.*
	Paper for hangings manufactory.	50 to 60 ,, ,, 1,320*l.*, ,, 24*l.*
	Gas factory	11 ,, ,, 282*l.* 12*s.* ,, 25*l.* 13*s.*
Geestemünde	Pottery	300 workmen; weekly wages, average 10*s.*
Göttingen	Cigar manufactory	Weekly wages, average 7*s.* 6*d.*
	India-rubber works	80 to 100 workmen; total weekly wages nearly 45*l.*, average per head. 9*s.* to 10*s.* 6*d.*
Hanover	Cotton mill	1,400 to 1,500 workpeople; total yearly wages, 28,500*l.* to 30,000*l.*, average per head, 20*l.* 5*s.*
Werden district ..	Cigar manufactory	1,500 workpeople; wages average 2*s.* 6*d.* to 3*s.* a-day.
Province Westphalia—		
Iserlohn	Puddling and rolling works ..	900 workmen; average weekly wages, 12*s.* to 13*s.* 6*d.*
Province Hesse-Nassau—		
Limburg	Phosphates of lime mines ..	Daily wages for contract work, 1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.*
	Ore mining—working ..	568 workmen; annual total of wages, 12,453*l.* 12*s.*, average for each workman, 21*l.* 18*s.*
	,, smelting ..	342 ,, ,, 3,152*l.* ,, ,, 9*l.* 3*s.*
	,, dressing ..	66 ,, ,, 1,640*l.* 17*s.* ,, ,, 24*l.* 18*s.*
Wiesbaden	Mines	Daily wages for cutters (12 hours), 1*s.* 10½*d.*; workers, 1*s.* 2½*d.* to 1*s.* 5*d.*; apprentices, 9½*d.* to 1*s.* (averages).
	Cigar manufactories	Weekly wages for men, 12*s.* to 15*s.*; for youths and girls, 5*s.* and 6*s.*
Hanau	Engine manufactory	Weekly wages, workmen, 11*s.* 5*d.* to 12*s.*; day workers, 8*s.* 6*d.* to 9*s.* 6*d.* a-week; apprentices, 3*s.* 5*d.*
	Hardware manufactory ..	Weekly wages, workmen, 10*s.* 1½*d.* to 18*s.* 9*d.*; day workers, 7*s.* 6½*d.* to 9*s.* 6*d.* a-week; apprentices, 4*s.* 3*d.*
	Plated-metal works	Weekly wages, workmen, 12*s.* to 13*s.* 8*d*; day workers, 8*s.* 6*d.* a-week; apprentices, 6*s.*
	Goldsmith's and silversmith's work	Weekly wages, males, 10*s.* 3*d.* to 24*s.*; female, 6*s.* to 10*s.* 3*d.*; male apprentices, 1*s.* 8*d.* to 6*s.*; female apprentices, 1*s.* 8*d.* to 5*s.* 1*d.*; day workers, 6*s.* 10*d.* to 12*s.*
	Gold and silver wire and manufactured goods	Weekly wages, men, 3*s.* 5*d.* to 12*s.*; women 14½*d.* to 5*s.* 2*d.*
	Gas-works	Weekly wages, workmen, 12*s.* 5*d.*

Province, Place.	Manufactories, &c.	Number of Workpeople Employed and Rates of Wages.
Province Hesse-Nassau—		
Hanau	Tobacco manufactories ..	Weekly wages, males, 10*s.* 3*d.*; women, 8*s.* 1*d.*; young persons, 5*s.* 1*d.*
	Hat manufactories	Weekly wages, males, 15*s.* 5*d.* to 18*s.*; women, 3*s.* 5*d.* to 8*s.* 6*d.*; apprentices, 1*s.* 8*d.* to 5*s.* 1*d.*; and day workmen, 6*s.* 10*d.* to 8*s.* 6*d.* a-week.
	Cigar-box manufactories ..	Weekly wages, workmen, 6*s.* 10*d.* to 20*s.* 6*d.*
	Paper manufactories	Weekly wages, men, 10*s.* 3*d.*; women, 5*s.* 1*d.*, on the average.
Rhenish Province—		
Stolberg	Iron works ("Rothe Erde") ..	791 workmen; daily wages averaging 2*s.* 7*d.*
Dusseldorf	Engine manufactory	53 workmen; weekly wages averaging 13*s.* 6*d.*
	Wire tacks manufactory ..	Daily wages for men, 2*s.* to 3*s.*; youths, 7¼*d.* to 1*s.*
	Calico print works	Daily wages for men, 1*s.* 8*d.* for 12 hours.
	India-rubber manufactory ..	Weekly wages, 6*s.* to 8*s.*
Saarbruck	Government coal mines ..	18,646 workmen (in 1867); yearly sum paid for wages, 651,666*l.*; average per head, 34*l.* 18*s.*; for every 5 tons of coal raised, 20*s.* 6¾*d.*
Essen	Blast furnaces	201 workmen; daily average wages, 2*s.* 8½*d.*
Mülheim	Coal mines	3,661 ,, ,, 2*s.* 2½*d.* to 2*s.* 8*d.*
	Blast furnaces, &c.	460 ,, ,, 2*s.* 4¾*d.*, average annual wages, 30*l.* 9*s.*
	Iron works	473 ,, ,, 2*s.* 8½*d.*
	Wrought-iron manufactures ..	60 ,, ,, 2*s.* 4*d.*
	Zinc works	352 workmen; yearly sum paid for wages, 14,754*l.*; per head 42*l.*; smelter, 1st class, daily wages, 3*s.* 11*d.*; 2nd class, 3*s.*; other workmen, 2*s.* 2½*d.*
	Cotton weaving and printing ..	435 men, women, boys, and girls; daily wages, average, 1*s.* 8*d.*
	Cotton spinning factory ..	105, chiefly boys and girls and females; average daily wages, 1*s.* 6*d.*
Saarn	Wooden and carriage screw manufactory	67 workmen; yearly sum paid in wages, 1,125*l.*; average per man, 16*l.* 16*s.*
Duisburg	Blast furnaces	246 workmen; smelter's daily wages, 2*s.* 8*d.* and 3*s.*; day workmen, 1*s.* 9½*d.*; locksmiths and enginemen, 2*s.* 5*d.*
	Ditto	258; daily wages for workmen, 1*s.* 7*d.* to 1*s.* 9½*d.*; men employed at the furnaces, 2*s.* to 3*s.*; coke-burners, 2*s.* 6*d.* to 3*s.*
	Cast-steel works	25; average daily wages, 2*s.* 6*d.*
	Fire-proof stoneware	105; yearly sum paid in wages, 3,998*l.* 8*s.*; average per head, 38*l.* 2*s.*
	Ship-building yard	12; average daily wages, 2*s.* 11*d.*

The following particulars with respect to the rates of wages in the glass trade, and in the mining and metallurgic industries, are extracted from a variety of Official Returns furnished by the Provincial Governments, but they refer for the most part to the year 1860 :—

I.—*Rates of Wages and Earnings in the Glass Trade.*

	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Province of Brandenburg :							
Town of Templin—							
Weekly wages	0	15	0	to	0	18	0
Province of Rhine :							
District of Saarlouis—							
Yearly earnings of a glass-maker ..	26	0	0		..		
Ditto, of a journeyman	22	10	0		..		
Ditto, glass-blower	15	0	0		..		
Ditto, apprentice	7	10	0		..		
Ditto, stoker, case-maker, and furnace ("Bauer")	22	10	0		..		
Ditto, glass-grinder (master)	24	0	0		..		
Ditto, ditto (journeymen)	18	0	0		..		
Ditto, ditto (apprentices)	4	10	0		..		
District of Saarbruck—							
Glass-blowers earn annually	33	0	0		..		
Rollers, ditto	22	10	0		..		
Stokers, melting-pot, and case-makers, mixers of the glass composition, and glass-cutters	18	0	0		..		

II.—*Rates of Wages and Earnings of Miners.*

	s.	d.		s.	d.
Province of Silesia :					
The daily wages in Waldenburg average ..	1	6			
Ditto, in Schönau	1	0	to	1	6
Ditto, in Bolkenhain	1	0		1	2½
Ditto, in Frankenstein	0	8¼		1	1¼
District of Stenrode—					
Daily wages of miners, of 17 to 25 years old	0	9½		1	5
Ditto, from 25 and upwards	1	2½		1	6
Miners who keep house receive 12*s.* worth of coals annually.					
District of Lublintz—					
Daily wages, with lodging and firing, and the use of from 1 to 5 morgen of land (the morgen equal to 1½ acre) ..	0	6		1	0
Pless—					
Cutters	1	2½		2	0
Province of Saxony :					
District of Sangerhausen—					
Wages for 8 hours' task work, average ..	1	0		..	
District of Erfurt—					
Average daily wages	1	6		..	
District of Oschersleben—					
Wages for 12 hours' task work for cutters.	1	5		1	9¼
Ditto, for able-bodied workers ..	1	2½		1	5
Ditto, for youths	0	9		1	2½

Rhenish Provinces:

District of Essen—

Workmen.	Number of Working Days in the Year.	Northern Part of the District. Task Work of 6 to 8 hours. Wages.	Northern Part of the District. Annual Earnings.	Northern Part of the District. Task Work of 6 to 8 hours.	Northern Part of the District. Annual Earnings.
		s. d.	£ *s.*	*s. d.*	£ *s.*
Cutters	300	1 11½	29 8	2 2½	33 0
Drawers	300	1 8	24 15	1 9½	27 0
Engine men ..	336	..	32 8	2 4½	39 18
Stokers	336	..	28 16	1 8½	28 9
Watchmen ..	348	1 0	18 0	1 3½	23 8
Workmen . ..	300	1 6	22 10	1 6	22 10
Boys	300	0 11	13 10	1 0	15 0
Other workmen ..	300	1 6	22 10	1 6	22 10

	£ *s.* *d.*	£ *s.* *d.*
District of Duisburg—		
Miners and smelters, according to their work, and the nature of their employment, earn, annually	22 10 0	0 to 36 0 0
District of Nettman—		
A miner earns daily	0 2 5	0 3 0
A day workman, ditto	0 1 9½	0 2 0
A youth, ditto	0 1 1	0 1 7
District of Mulheim—		
The average wages for 12 hours' task work are	0 1 6	..
District of Engen—		
Monthly earnings	1 16 0	2 5 0
District of Schleiden—		
Weekly earnings	0 9 0	0 10 6
Districts of Adenau and Zell—		
Average daily wages	0 1 2½	..

District of Ottweiler—

The following are the wages in the Government coal mines:—

Workmen.	For 12 hours' Task Work. In the Mines.		For 8 hours' Task Work in the Mines.
	s. d.	*s. d.*	*s. d.*
Mine carpenters ("Zimmerhauer")	1 1¼	2 0	1 9
Cutters	1 10	1 9	1 6
Workers and drawers:			
First class	1 8½	1 7½	1 5
Second class . ..	1 7	1 6	1 3½
Third class	1 6	1 5	1 2½
Fourth class	1 5	1 3½	1 1¼
	s. d. *s. d.*	*s. d.* *s. d.*	*s. d.* *s. d.*
Signalmen, &c. . ..	1 8 to 2 1¼	1 9 2 0	1 5 to 1 9

III.—*Rates of Wages and Earnings in the Metallurgic Industry.*

Province of Silesia:

	£ *s.* *d.*	£ *s.* *d.*
District of Sprottau—		
Weekly wages for moulders and apprentices in the iron works	0 6 0	to 0 15 0
Ditto, for engine-makers and locksmiths ..	0 15 0	1 10 0
District of Waldenburg—		
Weekly wages for smelters, at the lowest .	0 6 0	9 0

	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Province of Silesia—*continued.*						
District of Frankenstein—						
Average daily wages	0	0	8¼	0	1	1¼
District of Glatz—						
Average daily wages	0	1	0		..	
District of Pless—						
Daily wages for ordinary task workmen ..	0	0	9½	0	1	2¼
Ditto, for smelters, smiths, and skilled workmen	0	1	0	0	2	3
Province of Saxony:						
District of Stendal—						
Daily wages for ordinary workmen ..	0	1	0		..	
Ditto, for smelters	0	1	6		..	
Ditto, ditto, on the average and for contract work:—						
For the former	0	1	6		..	
For the latter	0	2	0		..	
Province of Westphalia:						
District of Konsfeld—						
Daily wages	0	0	7	0	3	0
Rhenish Province:						
Wages throughout the various iron works vary, according to the nature of the works themselves, and to the skill and energy of the workmen, from, per day	0	0	7	0	3	0
In the District of Essen the following are the rates of wages per day—						
1. Workmen with daily employment, viz.:						
Master smelters	0	4	0		..	
Smelters	0	2	0		..	
Loaders	0	1	7¼		..	
Weighers	0	1	9½		..	
Scoria drawers ("Schlachenzieher").	0	1	8½		..	
Engineers	0	4	0		..	
Sub-engineers	0	1	9½		..	
Coke-burners	0	2	1½		..	
2. Workmen who are only employed on work-days:						
Limestone-heaters	0	1	6		..	
Labourers	0	1	6		..	
Smiths	0	2	4¾		..	
Carpenters	0	2	0		..	
Masons	0	3	0		..	
The usual wages for task-work in the zinc works are 1*s.* 9½*d.* a-day, rising, according to increased rate of production and activity, in particular works.						
Smelters earn	0	1	7	0	3	6
Stokers	0	1	11	0	3	2½
Muffle-makers	0	2	5		..	
Masons	0	2	1¼		..	
Carpenters	0	2	2½		..	
Workmen employed by the day ..	0	1	9½		..	
Youths	0	1	0	0	1	5
Men employed at the furnaces, a-day .	0	1	9½	0	2	6
In the machine manufactories the men are paid by task-work at the following rates:—						
Day workmen	0	1	4¾	0	1	6
Loam and sand-moulders . ..	0	0	9½	0	2	5
Wooden model-makers	0	1	7¼	0	2	5
Turners in metal	0	1	7¼	0	2	3½
Locksmiths	0	1	7¼	0	2	5
Smiths	0	1	7¼	0	2	6
Youths	0	0	9¼	0	1	2½

Rhenish Province—*continued.*	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
In Krupp's cast steel works wages vary according to the different branches of work, and the relative skill of the workmen.						
Day workmen or helpers ("Handlanger") receive, per day ..	0	1	2½	0	1	9½
Smiths, smelters, puddlers, carpenters, masons, &c., receive, per month, wages varying from	2	8	0	6	15	0
Masters (with various additional advantages), per month . ..	6	0	0	9	0	0
The number of workmen employed in Krupp's establishment is between 8,000 and 10,000.						
In the District of Gummersbach—						
Men employed in the iron works receive, per day	0	1	6	0	2	0
In the District of Düren—						
In the smelting establishments and machine manufactories, weekly	0	9	0	0	10	6
In the District of Adenau—						
In the smelting establishments and machine manufactories, men in permanent employment, per day	0	1	0	..		
In the District of Zell—						
In the smelting establishments and machine manufactories, men in permanent employment, per day	0	1	6	..		
In the District of Treves—						
The iron-workers receive annually, according to the classes to which they belong :—						
First class	33	15	0	39	0	0
Second class	27	15	0	33	15	0
Third class	22	10	0	27	15	0
Fourth class	16	16	0	22	10	0
Fifth class	11	5	0	16	16	0
Sixth class	9	0	0	11	5	0
For 280 working days in the year.						
In the District of Altweiler—						
In the Neukirchner iron works day-workmen earn	0	1	9½	..		
Youths	0	1	2½	..		
Apprentices of from 14 to 16 years of age .	0	0	9½	0	1	5
Workmen employed at the blast furnaces .	0	1	5	0	3	0
Puddlers and smelters, per day . ..	0	1	2½	0	4	6
The same rate of wages prevails in the engine manufactories.						
In the District of Saarbruck—						
The average daily wages for task-work in the iron works are as follows :—						
Masters of all classes (welders, rollers, melters, smelters, hammerers, smiths, puddlers, railmakers, machinists), and working machinists of the first class, earn, per day	0	3	0	..		
Puddlers of the second class, melters, welders, foremen rollers, railmakers' assistants, pincers' holders, and assistant workmen of the second class, earn, per day	0	2	0	..		
Third class—Boiler-feeders, stokers, assistant workmen, and all other workmen employed in this class, earn, per day	0	1	6	..		

Rhenish Province—*continued.*	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
District of Saarlouis—						
The annual earnings of those employed in in the iron works are as follows:—						
Master puddlers	45	0	0	..		
Master welders, rollers, smelters, hammermen and decorators ..	30	0	0	36	0	0
First class puddlers	30	0	0	..		
Second class ditto	22	10	0	..		
First class welders and rollers	25	10	0	..		
Second class ditto	21	0	0	..		
First class smelters	22	10	0	..		
First class refiners and decorators ..	22	10	0	24	0	0
Second class ditto	18	0	0	19	10	0
Ordinary workmen	15	0	0	18	0	0

With respect to the Returns which I have given above, showing the average wages paid in many of the chief branches of the manufacturing and mining industries situated in the principal industrial centres of Prussia, I must observe, that the conditions of labour, and the relations between employers and their workmen, vary so much in different trades, that it is next to impossible to give any general correct summary of them. The Industrial Code ("Gewerbe Ordnung") for the North German Confederation, an Act passed during the present year, in Part VII, sets forth the reciprocal obligations and duties of employers and employed, and traces the legal limits within which both are allowed unrestricted freedom to combine for the protection or advancement of their interests, real or imaginary.

Schools.

It is scarcely necessary that I should state that primary education in Prussia is obligatory for all children without distinction, who are not incapacitated by illness or other causes from attending school, from the age of 6 to 14 years. The result of this compulsory system is that of the whole number of children to whom it applies, including those incapacitated as above-mentioned, only about 14 per cent. absent themselves from school altogether, and that of the recruits annually drafted into the army not more than 4 per cent. are found to have received no education whatever, and only 12 per cent. who can read nothing but print. On the other hand, it is thought by many that the guiding principles which regulate the preparatory education of the school teachers

as well as the course of instruction given in the primary schools, and which are of universal application, are somewhat too rigid in their uniformity. They do not sufficiently take into account the various degrees of intelligence of the pupils who frequent them or the great difference that exists between the different Provinces of the Monarchy, for example, between the east and west, as regards the general standard of intellectual culture.

Exclusive of the higher class of polytechnic and of technical schools, there exist for the benefit of the industrial classes what are called "Fortbildungstchulen," literally schools for education, and which are for the use of young artizans (journeymen, apprentices, and factory operatives) who have passed the period of compulsory attendance at the primary schools.

The course of teaching at these schools is either limited to simply continuing the elementary teaching of the primary schools, or it aims at a somewhat higher degree of instruction, regard being had in most cases to the future industrial career of the pupil. They are totally distinct, however, from technical schools.

Instruction is usually given in the "Fortbildungsschulen" for a few hours only on Sundays, and occasionally on week days. In winter the attendance is more assiduous and frequent than during the summer. Complaints of the irregularity of the attendance at these schools are general, and the Education Bill which has been introduced this Session proposes to invest the Communal Boards with a discretionary power to make it compulsory for young artizans and factory operatives from 14 to 18 years of age to attend them. The Bill in question, however, is an unpopular measure on other grounds, and is not likely to pass.

The total number of "Fortbildungschulen" existing in Prussia in 1864 was 445 with 493 teachers and 29,123 pupils. This number has no doubt greatly increased since then.

As a fitting conclusion to a Report in which I have attempted, as far as my space allowed me, to illustrate by the aid of statistics some of the chief points connected with tbe material condition of the working classes in Prussia, a short sketch of their organization and social aims and endeavours at the present moment may not be devoid of interest.

I must first observe that social movements in this country are not to be looked upon or examined as isolated and independent facts. They are closely connected with, and are sensibly influenced by, similar indications of the popular mind in other parts of Germany. What is true of commercial matters is equally true of social movements. On the other hand, the recent attempts which have been made to bring about a close international union, or "solidarité," as the phrase is, between the working classes in the different European States by those who assume to guide and represent them, have not hitherto been crowned with much success in Prussia, and the dissensions and bickerings which divide the social leaders and their adherents are as great, if not greater, here than those which separate political parties.

Before the revolution of 1848 the improvements of the condition of the working classes in Prussia was looked upon as a question which concerned the philanthropist more than the statesman. An association called "The Central Union for Promoting the Welfare of the Working Classes," and composed of persons belonging to the official class and of literary men and manufacturers, existed for a long time before it was recognized and sanctioned by the State.

The revolution of 1848, with its confused aims and utopian legislation, effected nothing permanent towards improving the condition of the labouring classes.

Later on many of the prominent political men belonging to the democratic or popular party, who refused to acknowledge the Prussian Constitution of 1850, retired altogether from the political arena and turned their attention exclusively to economical questions. This circumstance had undoubtedly a beneficial and practical influence in drawing public attention to the extreme importance of such questions. The associations founded by M. Schultze-Delitzch upon the principle of co-operative credit, and which have now such extensive ramifications throughout Germany, have contributed in a high degree to educate the working classes on economical questions. Whether the purely economical results which have followed the adoption of the principle referred to have really been as important as they appear at first sight admits, perhaps, of some doubt.

Mr. Morier, in his Report on this subject which was published in a Blue Book and presented to Parliament in 1867, has so fully and ably described the nature, origin, and organism of the Co-operative Associations established by M. Schultze-Delitzsch, that it would be superfluous to attempt to follow him on the same ground.

On the retirement of the reactionary Ministry of M. Manteuffel in 1859, there was a revival of political life for the first time since 1848, and with it sprung up a number of Working Men's Associations in many of the principal towns. They were usually presided over by highly educated men or persons standing high in public estimation, whose attention, however, was directed more to the mental improvement of the artizans and factory operatives of whom these unions were composed than to any immediate improvement of their material condition. This latter consideration, though obviously not of secondary importance, was put on one side owing to the dislike which the mass of the working population, even the moderate men amongst them, evinced to the reforms which were proposed for their benefit. It was only when extreme doctrines began to leaven the inert masses of the people, and when all those amongst the unionists and members of economical societies who possessed property of any kind began to look about them for some barrier to arrest the progress of the socialistic movement, that the societies founded by M. Schultze-Delitzsch began to be looked upon with a favourable eye, and have gradually increased in popularity.

In the year 1861 a strong attempt was made by the working men's unions to bring about a combined action and a closer cohesion between them for the purpose of promoting their common interests and objects. The attempt failed in its immediate object, but it had one important result: it established the conviction amongst the working classes that it was only by intimate union and co-operation that improvements in the social and economical condition of the working classes could possibly be effected. These Unions still continue to hold annual meetings, but less attention seems to be paid to them than formerly. Although delegates from the Prussian Unions are generally present at the International Working Men's Congresses, the members of them

as a body are far from being either extreme Radicals or Socialists. They form the left wing of the Democratic or advanced Liberal party, and they have hitherto shown no inclination as a body to change their political flag. A fraction of them, it is true, has declared in favour of the extreme doctrines advocated by the International Association, and has seceded in consequence from the union connection.

A notice, however brief, of Working Men's Associations in Prussia would be incomplete without some mention of a man who, until his death, four years ago, played so conspicuous a part and exercised so commanding an influence over the masses in this country, as Ferdinand Lassalle. He was a man of great intellectual power, eloquence, and subtilty, but of unscrupulous ambition. At a time when the working-classes began to be deeply agitated by the social movement to which I have previously alluded, Lassalle enlisted himself with real, or feigned, ardour in their cause, and succeeded in powerfully influencing them by his seductive eloquence and by his writings. Studiously abstaining from any attack upon the ruling powers, he waged war upon the wealthy middle-classes and the employers of labour. With considerable skill and plausibility he endeavoured to throw ridicule upon the economical reforms which had been introduced by M. Schultze-Delitzsch for the benefit of the working-classes, who were thus divided into opposite camps. Lassalle advocated universal suffrage and State aid as the two cardinal points of his political and economical creed. State aid was to take the form of granting large sums of money out of the Public Treasury in order to establish manufactories, which were to be the property of the workmen, and to be exclusively under their own control and management. The controversy to which the advocacy of these doctrines gave rise, and which occupied the attention of all classes of the people, was at its height, although it had led to no practical result except the organization under the dictatorship of Lassalle of the General German Working Men's Union, when Lassalle himself was killed in a duel by a M. de Racovitz in Switzerland in 1865. The memory of this singular man is still cherished amongst the mass of the factory operatives throughout Germany as that of a prophet and martyr; and no one of his

present imitators and followers can aspire to a tithe of his influence with the working-classes.

Lassalle's death was followed by a serious split in the Socialist camp, arising out of the personal quarrels and petty jealousies of the leaders. At the present moment, one of the persons who exercises the most influence in the party is Dr. Schweitzer, a member of the Reichstag, and editor of the "Social Democrat," and he has succeeded in winning over many of his former opponents.

The Socialist agitation in this country is a purely negative one. It signalizes itself by hostility to every practical reform, as being nothing more than a mischievous palliative, utter indifference to popular education, and a feeble interest in political progress of any kind. The Union Social Democrats have succeeded, however, in electing five or six members to the North German Reichstag, representing their various shades of opinion. One exception to the negative policy of the Socialist party of late, has been the encouragement and organization of strikes. In many instances these strikes have ended by the workmen obtaining an increase of wages, and the confidence of the Socialist party in their power has been increased in consequence; but the fact is, that the anti-Socialist Working Men's Unions have contributed to their success by aiding them when there has been a question of strikes, and, in most cases, where the strikes have been successful, public opinion had already declared itself in favour of the workmen. These strikes are daily, however, become frequent and serious, and at the present moment, 7,000 miners, working at the coal-mines at Waldenburg, in Silesia, have struck for higher wages and a reduction of the hours of labour. There is a disposition on the part of the owners to yield to these demands, but they refuse to recognize the Trades' Union Committee as a mediating agency, and will only treat with the men themselves.

The recent establishment of "Gewerk-Vereine," or Trades' Unions, which are quite distinct from the "Arbeiter-Vereine," or Working Men's Unions, is chiefly due to the initiative of two Progressist members of the Reichstag, Max Hirsch and Franz Dunckler, with the object of counteracting the influence and spread of similar organizations established by the Democratic Socialists,

and of promoting the material interests of the artizan labourers in the particular branch of trade to which they belong. They are founded on the principle of excluding political, religious, and intellectual matters, with the sole objects of raising and securing the incomes of workmen, whether employed in trade or manufactures, of establishing invalid, orphan, sick, and strike funds, and of spreading over as large a number of workmen as possible in one branch of trade the expenses which individual workmen, or even local unions, would be unable to bear.

Thousands of workmen up to the present time have joined these "Gewerk-Vereine," and practical results seem likely to flow from them, particularly if they succeed eventually in obtaining legislative recognition.

As I have frequently had occasion to quote the new Industrial Code, or Law regulating the exercise of industry throughout the North German Confederation, I annex a textual translation of it to this Report. It was passed by the Reichstag in June last, and came into operation, with partial exceptions, on the 1st of October.

(Signed) GEORGE PETRE.

Industrial Code ("Gewerbe-Ordnung") of the North German Confederation, June 21, 1869.

Part I.—General Provisions.

§ 1. Everyone is at liberty to exercise a trade or calling, subject to such exceptions or limitations as are prescribed by the present law.

No one actually entitled to exercise a trade or calling can be deprived of that right on the ground of not fulfilling the conditions prescribed by the present law.

§ 2. The distinction between town and country, as regards the exercise or extension of the limits of a trade or calling, is abolished.

§ 3. More than one trade may be carried on at a time

by the same person, or the same trade may be carried on in more than one workshop or place of sale. No restriction is placed upon the sale by artizans of goods which are not of their own manufacture.

§ 4. Guilds and Commercial Corporations have no right of excluding others from exercising a trade.

§ 5. No change is made by the present law in respect to the restrictions which are imposed upon the exercise of certain trades or occupations in virtue of the Customs, Excise, and Postal Laws.

§ 6. The present law does not apply to mining concerns (except in so far as provided in §§ 152, 153, 154), to fisheries, to the practice of medicine (subject to the provisions contained in §§ 29, 30, 53, 80, 144), to the establishment and removal of apothecaries, shops, and the sale of drugs (subject to the provisions contained in § 80), to educational matters, to the practice of the law, and conveyancing business, to the business of emigration agencies, insurance offices, and railway undertakings, to the sale of lottery tickets, to the right of keeping public conveyances, or to the legal status ("Rechtsverhältnisse") of ship's crews.

An ordinance of the Federal Presidency will determine in what drugs unrestricted trade is to be permitted.

§ 7. From the 1st of January, 1873, unless the laws of a State prescribe that it shall have effect at an earlier date, are abolished.

1. All surviving exclusive industrial privileges ("Gewerbeberechtigungen"), that is to say, rights in connection with the exercise of a trade, of preventing others from the exercise of the trade, or of imposing restrictions upon it, whether in a general way, or with reference to the use of certain materials employed in it.

2. "Zwangs" and "Bann"* rights which are coupled with exclusive trade privileges, with the exception of the Skinners' rights.

3. All "Zwangs" and "Bann" rights which, by the [illegible] of their charters, can be abolished without indemnification, due to the Trades' clauses, and if not resting upon a contract following rights, if not already abrogated by "Arbeiter-Reichstag, M.

* "Bannrechte." The ancient rights under which the object of counte[illegible] in district, living within the "Bann" (mile), were lar organizations [illegible]icular millers, bakers, butchers, brewers, &c.

between the parties holding them and the parties subject to them :—

(*a.*) The right attached to the possession of a mill, distillery, or right of distillery ("Brenngerechtigkeit"), a brewery or right of brewery, or a tavern, or of forcing consumers to employ exclusively the persons in possession of these rights, to grind or bruise their corn and to supply them with drink (termed the "Mahlzwang," "Branntweinzwang," or "Branzwang").

(*b.*) The right possessed by the butchers and bakers of a town of compelling the inhabitants of the town, suburbs, or district, called the "Bann" mile, to supply themselves entirely or partially with meat and bread from them.

5. Rights of granting concessions for industrial establishments or for the exercise of trades, whether vested in the Treasury, Corporations, Institutions, or in individual holders.

6. All imposts levied upon the exercise of a trade, as also the right of levying them, with the exception of the trade taxes payable to the State and the communes.

The laws of each State are to determine whether, or to what extent the holders of the aforesaid exclusive trade rights are to be indemnified for their abolition.

§ 8. From the said period (§ 7), unless the laws of the State prescribe an earlier date, are subject to redemption.

1. All such "Zwangs" and "Bann" rights as are not abrogative by § 7, in so far as the obligation rests upon landed property, or concerns the members of a Corporation as such, or is imposed upon the inhabitants of a locality or district in virtue of their domicile.

2. The right of compelling the proprietor of a tavern to resort to a particular brewery for the drink required in his establishment.

The special arrangements for redeeming these rights are left to the special arrangement of each State.

§ 9. Disputes as to whether a particular right is included in those which are declared by §§ 7 and 8 to be abrogated, are to be determined by legal process.

It is reserved, however, to the laws of the State, to settle by what authorities and by what procedure the question is to be decided, as to whether or to what extent

a charge upon real property is a land charge, or is paid for the exercise of a trade or industry.

§ 10. Exclusive trade rights, or "Zwangs" and "Bann" rights, which have been by law abrogated, or pronounced subject to redemption, can no longer be acquired in future.

No trade rights connected with the possession of real property can be established for the future.

§ 11. The right to carry on an independent trade or industry is irrespective of sex.

Women carrying on a trade or industry on their own account ("Selbstständig") can enter independently into legal covenants, and appear before the Court on matters connected with their business, whether they are married or not. It is not open to them in business matters connected with the exercise of their trade, to invoke the benefits of the laws relating to women ("Rechtswohlthaten der Frauen") which exist in particular States of the Confederation. The provisions of this clause apply equally, whether women carry on the trade alone or in conjunction with other persons, or whether they carry it on in person or by proxy.

§ 12. The industrial operations of Corporate Bodies, not belonging to the Confederation ("Juristische Personen des Auslandes") are subject to the laws of each particular State.

Existing restrictions respecting the exercise of a trade or industry by persons belonging to the army or to the official classes, are not affected by the present law.

§ 13. Permission to exercise a trade or industry is not to be made conditional in any commune or with respect to any trade or industry upon the possession of of the right of citizenship.

A person having set up a trade or industry is bound at the expiration of three years, at the requisition of the communal authorities, to acquire the rights of citizenship if in conformity with the existing communal constitution. In such cases, however, the prescribed or customary burghership's fee is not to be exacted, nor is the person to be required to give his right of citizenship acquired elsewhere.

Part II.—The Exercise of Stationary Trades or Callings ("Stehender Gewerbebetrieb").

I.—*General Requirements.*

§ 14. Any one setting up a stationary trade, or industry, on his own account, must give notice of it at the time to the authorities appointed for the purpose by the law of the country. A similar notice must be given by any person authorized to carry on an itinerant trade or industry ("Gewerbe im Umherziehen"), Part III.

Further, any person acting as agent, or sub-agent, for procuring insurances for a personal or real property, fire insurance office, or any person resigning such agency, or from whom it is withdrawn by the insurance office, must give due notice of the same, within eight days, to the proper authorities of his place of residence. Printers and lithographers, booksellers and printsellers, second-hand booksellers, proprietors of circulating libraries, and reading-rooms, sellers of printed matter, newspapers and pictures, on opening a business, are bound to notify to the proper authorities of the place where they reside, at latest on the day of opening, where their business premises are situated, and also any subsequent removal.

§ 15. The authorities must acknowledge the receipt of this notice within three days.

The police may prevent a business from being continued, if a special permission was required for commencing it, and if it was begun without such permission being obtained.

A prohibition of this kind may be appealed against.

II.—*Special Authorizations.*

1.—*Industrial Establishments requiring Special Authorization.*

The consent of the proper authorities designated for the purpose by the laws of each State, is required in respect to industrial establishments which, whether on account of the locality in which they are situated, or owing to the nature of the works themselves, are liable

to cause considerable injury, danger, or nuisance, to the owners or inhabitants of the neighbouring premises, or to the public in general.

These comprise :—

Gunpowder manufactories, manufactories of fire-works, and explosive materials of all sorts, gasworks for the preparation and storage of gas, petroleum refining works, peat-tar, coal-tar, and coal works, when established away from the spot whence the raw material is derived, glass-works, and blacking ovens ("Russhütten"), chalk and lime-kilns, and gypsum furnaces, smelting-houses, roasting ovens, metal foundries, iron works. chemical works of all kinds, bleaching works, varnish boileries, starch manufactories, with the exception of those where potato starch is prepared, starch-syrup boileries, catgut, pasteboard, and felt works for roofing, glue, train-oil, and soap works, works for the preparation of animal hair, bone-burning, drying, boiling, and bleaching works, tallow boileries, slaughter-houses, tanneries, knacker's yards, human and artificial manure works, dams or reservoirs for the use of water-works (§ 23).

The foregoing list may be altered by a decision of the Federal Council, subject to the approval of the Diet in its ensuing session, whenever a presumption of the kind above-mentioned (of danger or nuisance) arises, or when such presumption has ceased to be founded.

§ 17. The application for permission to establish any of the aforesaid works, must be accompanied by explanatory drawings and descriptions. Should these be considered sufficiently complete, the project must be brought to the knowledge of the public by a single advertisement in the journal in which the official notifications of the authorities (§ 16), are published, accompanied by a requisition to all those who have objections to urge against it, to submit them within fourteen days. This delay is to date from the day on which the paper publishing the notification is issued, and is to bar all future objections, excepting those based upon the legal rights of individuals.

§ 18. Should no objections be raised, the authorities have to examine whether the establishment of the business in question is one calculated to cause any considerable risk, injury, or nuisance to the public. According to the result of this examination, which must extend

to the due observance of the police, fire, building, and sanitary regulations, the permission is either to be refused or granted under such conditions as may be proved to be necessary. These latter include regulations for protecting the health and lives of the workmen. The decision must be given in writing, and must state the conditions which have been laid down, and must be accompanied by the reasons for refusing a permission, or for granting it, under certain conditions only.

§ 19. Objections founded on special private rights, must be decided upon by the Courts of Law; but the grant of a license is not to be dependent upon these objections having been disposed of.

Other objections, on the other hand, must be fully discussed in the presence of the parties; after which, the matter is to be examined into, and the decision given in the manner prescribed by § 18. This decision is to be communicated both to the promoter and to the opponent of the undertaking.

§ 20. An appeal lies from this decision to the superior authority next in rank, which must be defended, however, within fourteen days from the date of the publication of the decision, or the appellant loses his right.

The judgment on the appeal is to be communicated to both parties in writing, accompanied by the reasons on which it is founded.

§ 21. It is reserved to the laws of each State to appoint the authorities, and to prescribe the mode of procedure both in the first instance, and in the appeal. The following principles, however, are to be adhered to :—

1. Either the authority deciding in the first instance, or the authority deciding upon the appeal, must be a Board ("eine Kollegiale Behörde"). This authority is empowered to institute inquiries on the spot, to call witnesses and experts, and to take evidence on oath, and investigate the matter thoroughly.

2. If the authority, in the first instance, is represented by a Board, its decision must be given in an open sitting, after having summoned and heard the parties, even though no objections have been raised to the application, when it refuses to grant the permission without further inquiry, and when the promoter, within fourteen

days after the receipt of the decision, refusing his application, or granting it only under conditions, proposes that the matter shall be discussed orally.

3. If the Board acts as the Court of Appeal ("Zweite Instanz"), its decision must be pronounced in an open sitting, after having summoned and heard the parties.

4. The promoters of the undertaking, and the persons raising objections to it, are to be considered as parties.

§ 22. Costs originating in groundless objections, fall upon the opponents of the scheme; all other costs arising out of the proceedings, are to be defrayed by the promoter.

The division of costs must be settled at the same time that a decision is given in respect to permitting the proposed works.

§ 23. Reservoirs ("Stan Anlagen") for the use of waterworks, in addition to the rules laid down in §§ 17 to 22 are subject also to the regulations prescribed for the purpose by the laws of each particular State.

Each State has the right reserved to it of prohibiting by legislation the further use of existing, or the establishment of new private slaughter-houses in places where public slaughter-houses in sufficient number already exist or about to be erected.

Each State has, moreover, the right reserved to it of prescribing by legislation to what extent local statutes ("Orts Statuten") are authorized to decide that certain districts are to be fixed upon in preference to others for erecting works of the kind specified in § 16, whereas in other districts such establishments are to be prohibited altogether, or only allowed under special restrictions.

§ 24. The permission of the competent authorities according to the laws of each State, is required for the erection of steam-boilers, whether intended to work machinery or not. The application for permission must be accompanied by explanatory drawings and descriptions.

The authorities have to examine whether the proposed works are unobjectionable as regards the police, building, fire, and sanitary regulations, and also as regards the general police directions issued by the Federal Council in respect to the erection of steam-boilers. They have, according to the result of the

inquiry, either to refuse permission or to grant it unconditionally, or in granting it to prescribe such precautions and arrangements as may be necessary.

The regulations existing in each State of the Confederation are binding until general directions have been issued on the subject by the Federal Council.

Boilers must be examined before use to see if the regulations enjoined by the license have been complied with. Anyone beginning to use a boiler without having received the certificate which is to be issued on the occasion, incurs the fine imposed by § 147.

The foregoing rules apply also to moveable boilers.

The rules laid down in §§ 20 to 21 apply to appeals on this subject and the proceedings connected with them.

§ 25. The permission to set up any of the works specified in §§ 16 and 24 is valid as long as there is no change in the site or character of the premises, and, subject to this condition, it requires no renewal even if the business passes into other hands. If any change, however, is made in the works, the permission of the competent authorities is required as prescribed in §§ 17 to 23, inclusive, and, under certain circumstances, in § 24. A similar permission is necessary when any important change is introduced into the business carried on at any of the works specified in § 16. The competent authority may dispense, however, on the proposition of the owner of the works, with advertising the contemplated change (§ 17) if convinced that it is not calculated to produce any new or greater injury, risk, or nuisance to the owners or inhabitants of the neighbouring premises than the actual works.

These provisions extend also to industrial establishments (§§ 16 to 24) which have existed prior to the passing of the present Act.

§ 26. In cases where existing laws enable the owner or possessor of a property ("Grundstück") to bring a private action ("Privatklage") to protect it against injurious effects occasioned by an adjoining property, the action cannot, under any circumstances, be directed to stopping the works as regards any industrial establishment which has been set up with the sanction of the authorities, but only to insure arrangements being made to obviate the injurious effects, or, if such arrangements

are incompatible with carrying on the works, to indemnification.

§ 27. The erection or removal to another place of works which cannot be carried on without more than ordinary noise, if not requiring the permission prescribed in §§ 16 to 25, must be notified to the local police authorities. When churches, schools, or other public buildings, hospitals or "maisons de santé" exist in the neighbourhood of the proposed works, and would be likely to suffer seriously in their prescribed uses by the business being carried on in that particular spot, the local police authorities must refer to their superior administrative authorities to decide whether the permission to carry on the works on the proposed site is to be refused, or only to be granted conditionally.

§ 28. The superior administrative authorities are empowered to issue police directions with respect to the distance from neighbouring premises and from public roads at which machinery driven by wind is to be erected.

2.—*Trades or Professions requiring Special Authorization.*

§ 29. Apothecaries and all persons styling themselves doctors (surgeons, occulists, accoucheurs, dentists, and veterinary surgeons), or by similar titles, or who are recognized as such by the State or a commune, or are charged with official duties, require an authorization, which is given to them on proof of competency. This authorization, however, is not to be conditional on the applicant having previously received an academical degree of doctor.

The Federal authority is to determine, with reference to existing wants, what authorities in different parts of the Federal territory are to be charged with issuing authorizations which are to be valid throughout the whole Confederation, and is to issue directions as to the required proof of competency on the part of the recipient. The names of those persons to whom authorization has been granted must be published by the authorities granting it in the official journal fixed upon by the Federal Council.

Persons having received such authorization are not

restricted, within the limits of the Confederation, in the choice of the place where they choose to exercise their professional calling, subject to the rules laid down in § 6, with regard to the establishment or removal of apothecaries' shops.

A right is reserved to the Federal Council of determining upon what presumption ("Voraussetzungen") persons are to be exceptionally relieved from the prescribed examination on account of proved scientific attainments.

Persons who, previous to the promulgation of this Act, have already been entitled to pursue their calling in a Federal State as doctors, surgeons, dentists, accoucheurs, apothecaries, or veterinary surgeons, are to be considered as authorized throughout the whole territory of the Confederation.

§ 30. A license from the superior administrative authorities is required for the establishment of private hospitals, private lying-in hospitals, and private asylums, which is to be granted when there is no reason for withholding it on the ground of the applicant not being a proper person to conduct the proposed undertaking.

Midwives require a certificate of having passed an examination from the authorities appointed for the purpose by the law of each State.

§ 31. Masters of ships, mates, and pilots, have to prove that they possess the requisite knowledge by obtaining a certificate of qualification from the proper administrative authorities.

The Federal Council issues the instructions which are to be followed with respect to furnishing proof of qualification. The certificates given on production of this proof are valid for the whole Confederation, but in the case of pilots, only for the navigable waters specified in the certificate.

Special regulations, made in pursuance of Treaties in regard to masters and pilots in rivers, remain in force.

§ 32. Theatrical managers require a permission to exercise their calling, which is to be granted when there is nothing to prove that the applicant is unfit to carry on the business.

No restriction to any particular class of theatrical representations is allowed.

§ 33. Hotel-keepers, publicans, and retail dealers in

brandy or spirits require a permission to enable them to exercise their trade.

This permission can only be refused in the following cases :—

1. When there are circumstances justifying the assumption that the applicant will misuse the business to promote drunkenness, illicit play, the receiving of stolen property, or immorality.

2. When the premises in which it is intended to carry on the business are not such as to satisfy the requirements of the police, whether as regards their condition or situation.

The Government, however, has a right, when not at variance with the law of the country, of making the permission to open brandy-shops, and to retail brandy and spirits, conditional on its being proved that they are necessary.

§ 34. The law of each State has power to direct that a special authorization shall be required for the sale of poisons, and for the exercise of the profession of pilot; also, that only those persons shall be permitted to act as surveyors of mines ("Markscheider") who have qualified themselves, and have been licensed as such.

§ 35. Persons undergoing penalties for offences or crimes against morality are prohibited from giving lessons, professionally, in dancing, gymnastics, and swimming.

Any person who has been punished for an offence or crime against property, committed from motives of gain, may be prohibited from trading in second-hand clothes, bedding, or linen, from selling in retail old iron-ware or broken metals, yarn, refuse, or shreds of silk, wool, cotton, or linen, as also from exercising the trade of pawnbroker.

Any person who has been punished for an offence or crime against property, committed from motives of gain, or for an offence or crime against morality, may be prohibited from carrying on the business of an agency for the hire of servants.

Persons setting up any of the trades specified in this clause are bound to notify the opening of their business to the proper authorities.

§ 36. Land-surveyors, auctioneers, persons whose business it is to decide upon the degree of purity of the

precious metals, or upon the quality, bulk, or proper packing of goods of any kind, agents, weighers, measurers, sorters, inspectors, stowers, &c., may follow their occupation without restriction, but the State or Communal Authorities constitutionally authorized to deal with the matter, have a right to swear such persons to the due observance of existing regulations, and to install them publicly.

Those legal provisions which attach peculiar trustworthiness to the proceedings of persons pursuing any of the above-mentioned callings, or which invest their proceedings with any special legal force, are applicable only to persons who have been installed by the State or Communal Authorities, or by corporations constitutionally authorized to do so.

§ 37. The regulation of the public traffic in carriages of all kinds, gondolas, sedan-chairs, horses, and other modes of transport, is placed within each district under the administration of the local police authorities, as is also the trade of persons offering their services for hire in the public streets or squares.

§ 38. The central authorities are empowered to issue directions as to the manner in which persons engaged in any of the trades specified in § 35 (second and third paragraphs) are to keep their books, and to what amount of police control they are to be subject as regards the extent of, and mode of conducting, their business.

§ 39. The laws of each State may authorize the establishment of circuits for chimney-sweepers, but where these circuits exist, or may be established, the superior administrative authority has the power, with due respect for private rights, of either abolishing or altering them, without any right of opposition or claim to indemnity on the past circuit chimney-sweeper.

§ 40. The approvals and authorizations mentioned in §§ 29 to 34 are not to be given for any definite period, nor, subject to the rules laid down in §§ 53 and 143, can they be revoked.

An appeal is allowed against the refusal to grant permission to exercise any of the trades or avocations specified in §§ 30, 32, 33, and 34, as also against prohibitions to carry on trades, &c., specified in §§ 35 and 37. The mode of procedure and the authorities in cases of this kind are such as prescribed in §§ 20 and 21.

III.—*Extent, Exercise, and Loss of Industrial Rights.*

§ 41. The right possessed by a person of carrying on a stationary industry on his own account, includes also the right of taking any number of journeymen, assistants, and workmen, of all kinds, and, in so far as this law does not otherwise provide, any number of apprentices.

The right of apothecaries to take in assistants and apprentices is to be regulated by the law of each country.

§ 42. Any person entitled to carry on a stationary industry may exercise it, subject to the provisions of § 59, both in the place where he has established it, and also, unless the rules prescribed in Part III oblige him to have a warrant ("Legitimationsschein") beyond its limits.

§ 43. Any person desiring as a matter of trade, to cry, sell, or distribute, fix or post up, printed papers or pictorial representations, in the public thoroughfares, streets, squares, or other public places, must obtain permission from the local police authorities to enable him to do so, and in applying for permission he must bring with him his "Legitimationsschein," with his name on it.

This permission can only be refused under the conditions of, and in accordance with, § 57.

§ 44. Tradesmen, manufacturers, and others carrying on a stationary industry have a right, either personally, or by means of travellers in their employ, to buy up goods and take orders for goods elsewhere than at the place where they have established their trade.

They require for this purpose a warranty ("Legitimationsschein"), to be delivered to them by the subordinate police authorities, and valid for the current year.

The "Legitimationsschein" is not necessary when the trader has been privileged for the whole territory of the Confederation by obtaining the "License to trade" ("Gewerbe-Legitimations karte") prescribed by the Zollverein Treaties.

The possessor of such a "Legitimationsschein" is only allowed to carry about with him for conveyance to their destination, goods which he has bought up on

speculation, and only the samples and patterns of goods for which he is endeavouring to procure orders.

§ 45. The right of carrying on a stationary industry may be exercised by deputy, but the deputy must satisfy the requirements specially belonging to the industry in question.

§ 46. On the decease of any one carrying on an industry, it must be continued on account of the widow during her widowhood, or, in case of there being heirs under age, on their behalf by a representative qualified in the manner enjoined by § 45, in so far as special rules applying to the exercise of particular trades do not prescribe otherwise. This rule applies during the period of a guardianship, or during the settlement of an inheritance.

§ 47. In what measure persons who have been licensed or appointed in conformity with §§ 34 and 36 are to be allowed to act by deputy, must be decided in each particular case by the authorities whose business it is to confer the license or appointment.

The same rule applies to chimney-sweepers to whom a circuit has been assigned.

§ 48. Trade monopolies attached to the possession of real property ("Real Gewerbe berechtigungen") can be transferred to any one if qualified, in the manner prescribed by the present law, to exercise a trade, provided that the acquirer of the trade monopoly exercises it on his account.

§ 49. In granting licenses to any of the establishments specified in §§ 16 and 24, also to private hospitals, private lying-in hospitals, and private asylums, and theatrical entertainments, and licenses to carry on any of the trades mentioned in § 33, the licensing authorities have power, according to circumstances, of fixing a certain interval of time within which the establishment or undertaking must be begun and completed and the business commenced, under pain of the license expiring. Should no such term be fixed, the license is to expire if the holder of it allows a whole year to elapse after its receipt without having made use of it.

This delay may be prolonged by the authorities when there are no serious objections in the way.

When the holder of a license of this kind has stopped his business for a period of three years without having

applied for and obtained a postponement, the license expires.

As regards the establishments specified in § 16 the delay must be accorded so long as there is any uncertainty as to the ownership of them either on account of succession or bankruptcy, or as long as the business, from causes beyond control, cannot be carried on at all, or only at a serious loss to the owner.

The mode of procedure in respect to granting delays is similar to that for licensing new establishments.

§ 50. The delays mentioned in § 49 apply also to holders of licenses granted prior to the publication of this law, but with the proviso that the delays are to date from the day on which the law is promulgated.

§ 51. The chief administrative authorities have at all times power to close any industrial establishment on the ground of serious injury and danger to the public. In this case, however, compensation must be given to the owner for loss which he can prove to have incurred.

The order to close an establishment may be appealed against. On the question of compensation the Courts of Law may be appealed to.

§ 52. The provision of § 50 applies also to industrial establishments already existing at the time of the promulgation of the present law; but an order to close certain works cannot give rise to any claim to indemnity if the license originally granted contained an express stipulation that it should be revocable without indemnity.

§ 53. The authorizations ("Approbationen") specified in § 29 can only be revoked by the administrative authorities when the information upon which it was granted is proved to be incorrect.

On the same grounds the licenses and appointments mentioned in §§ 30, 32, 33, 34, and 36, may also be similarly revoked when the acts of or non-observance of his duties by the holder clearly show that he is wanting in those qualities the possession of which must have been assumed, in accordance with the present law, before granting the license or appointment.

Whether the person has incurred a fine for such acts or non-observance of his duties is a question reserved for judicial decision.

§ 54. The regulations contained in §§ 20 and 21 are applicable in regard to the mode of procedure and to

determining what authorities are competent in the matter of closing industrial establishments (§ 51), of preventing a business from being carried on (§ 15, 2, and § 35), and of revoking an authorization or appointment (§ 53).

Part III.—The Exercise of Itinerant Trades.

§ 55. Anyone who, away from his place of residence, without establishing a permanent place of business, and without receiving a previous order for goods,—1, personally offers goods of any kind for sale; 2, buys up goods of any kind for resale from others than traders, or elsewhere than in public places of sale; 3, applies for orders for goods; or, 4, offers his professional or artistic services for money, or exhibits shows which have no predominating scientific or artistic interest: must be provided with a "Legitimationsschein," subject to the regulations prescribed in §§ 44 and 64.

A "Legitimationsschein" is not required for selling or buying raw produce of agriculture, of forests, gardens, and orchards.

§ 56. The following articles are not allowed to be purchased or sold by itinerant traders:—

(1.) Spirituous liquors of all kinds;

(2.) Second-hand clothes and bedding, yarn refuse, ends and shreds of silk, wool, linen, or cotton, gold or silver broken up;

(3.) Playing cards, lottery tickets, public securities (shares or papers) representing value of any kind;

(4.) Gunpowder, fireworks, and other explosive substances;

(5.) Medicines, poisons, and poisonous substances.

The Federal Council, should it be necessary, has the right of ordering permission to be granted for the sale or purchase of any of the excluded articles.

The Federal Council, and in urgent cases the Federal Chancellor, in concert with the Committee of the Federal Council, has the right on grounds of public security, or for sanitary reasons, to forbid for a specific term other articles besides the above from being offered for sale or purchased by itinerant traders.

§ 57. A "Legitimationsschein," subject to the pro-

visions of § 54, cannot be refused to anyone belonging to the North German Confederation who has a fixed domicile within its territory, and who has completed his 21st year, unless,—1, he is affected with an offensive or contagious malady; 2, or has been sentenced to not less than six weeks' imprisonment, or to a minor punishment if coupled with a partial deprivation of the exercise of civil rights, for crimes against property committed from motives of gain, and against morality, for deliberate assaults with intent to kill or injure, for wilful incendiarism, for acting in disregard of prohibitions or measures of precaution adopted to prevent the introduction or spread of contagious diseases or of the cattle plague. The "Legitimationsschein" in these cases to be withheld for two from the date of the sentence, and in case of imprisonment, until the term of imprisonment has been undergone; 3, or is under the supervision of the police; 4, or has a bad reputation for habitual aversion to work, for begging, vagrancy, or addiction to drunkenness. The authorities must either furnish the applicant with a "Legitimationsschein" or refuse it in writing, stating the legal grounds which prevent it being granted. The mode of procedure and the authorities are the same as prescribed in §§ 20 and 21.

Foreigners may be allowed to exercise an itinerant trade. The Federal Council is empowered to frame the necessary measures relating thereto.

§ 58. A "Legitimationsschein" is to be given—

1. For the sale and purchase of game and fish.

2. For the sale of goods manufactured by the salesman, and which belong to the class of articles with which the weekly market is supplied; also for tendering industrial services according to the established usage of the country, within certain limits of the place of residence to be specified by the police authorities, by the competent subordinate authority of the place where the trader is domiciled; and for every other class of itinerant trade by the chief administrative authorities.

In those cases in which the law renders the exhibition of a trading license ("Gewerbeschein") obligatory, the latter may be substituted for the "Legitimationsschein."

§ 59. Any one giving musical performances in public, exhibiting shows, giving theatrical representations, or

other public entertainments, which have no superior interest on the score of Science or Art, in the public streets, or in moving from place to place, or only staying at a place, *en passant*, without establishing a permanent business, requires the previous permission of the authorities of the place where it is proposed to give the performances, in addition to the other requirements with which he is called upon to comply.

No further "Legitimationsschein" are to be issued for industries of the nature described, when a sufficient number in relation to the wants of the Administrative district has already been issued.

Wandering theatrical companies can only receive a "Legitimationsschein" on condition that the manager is provided with the license prescribed in § 32.

§ 60. The "Legitimationsschein" must contain a personal description of the holder and a specification of the nature of the industry in which he wishes to engage. It is valid only for the current year, but as long as the conditions prescribed by § 57 are complied with its renewal may be claimed as a matter of right.

The possession of a "Legitimationsschein" for carrying on the industries specified in § 59 confers the right of carrying them on in a district other than that of the chief administrative authority who issued it, only on condition of its being extended to the other district by the chief administrative authority of the latter. This extension is not to be granted whenever "Legitimationsscheine" have been already given or extended in sufficient numbers to supply the wants of the district.

§ 61. The owner of a "Legitimationsschein" is bound to carry it about with him whilst actually engaged in his industrial occupations, to produce it on the demand of the proper authority; or, if he is unable to produce it, to stop when ordered to do so by the authority until the deficiency has been supplied.

§ 62. An itinerant industry cannot be exercised by deputy. An exception to this rule is made as regards the sale of articles specified in § 58, within such limits of the place of residence as may be defined by the police authorities, and also as regards the industry specified in section 2 of § 58.

The attendance of other persons, whether for the conveyance of the goods, for looking after the horses, or

for any other purpose, must be expressly sanctioned in the "Legitimationsschein" by the authorities issuing it, or in whose district the applicant happens to be. This permission can only be refused on the grounds and in the manner set forth in § 57 for refusing "Legitimationsschein" to the promoter of the business. This permission is never to be granted to children under 14 years of age.

§ 63. Power is reserved to the legislation of each Confederate State to eliminate from the restrictive clauses of this Part, as far as its territory extends, the itinerant sale or purchase of certain specified articles of general use.

Part IV.—Market Trade.

§ 64. Every one has an equal right to attend fairs and yearly and weekly markets, and to sell and purchase at them.

Where, however, according to previous local custom, only the inhabitants of a place where a market is held have been allowed to sell at the weekly markets certain hand-made goods not included in the articles specified in § 66, the chief administrative authorities may, on the proposal of the communal authorities, authorize resident salesmen to continue the usual market trade in such hand-made goods, without according a similar right of sale at the weekly markets to strangers.

Power is reserved to the Federal Council of imposing retaliatory restrictions upon foreigners as regards trading at markets, when restrictions are imposed abroad upon subjects of the Confederation.

§ 65. The number, time, and duration of the fairs, and of the yearly and weekly markets are to be settled by the competent administrative authorities.

No opposition can be raised against any such Ordinance by those who are entitled to hold the market; no claim to compensation can be preferred unless the number of markets hitherto held is reduced by the Ordinance, and a greater number was expressly and irrevocably fixed by the grant. Communes desirous of making good a claim to compensation must prove that their right rests upon a special prescriptive privilege.

§ 66. The following are the articles permitted to be sold at weekly markets :—

1. Raw natural productions, with the exception of cattle.

2. Manufactures the production, of which is closely connected with agriculture and the management of forests, with the cultivation of gardens and orchards, and with fisheries, or which are the produce of the labour of the country people of the neighbourhood out of their working hours, or of labourers' work, with the exception of spirituous liquors.

3. Fresh provisions of all kinds. The competent administrative authorities have the power of deciding what additional articles, according to the usages of the place and the wants of the district generally, or of certain localities, are to be included for sale at the weekly markets.

§ 67. At the annual markets, in addition to the objects specified in § 66, articles of consumption and manufactures of all kinds may be offered for sale.

The permission of the local police, however, is necessary for the sale of spirituous liquors for consumption on the premises.

§ 68. In no instance is the market trade to be charged with any other dues than those levied as compensation for the space occupied, and for the use of stalls and market gear. No alteration is made by the present law in existing rules as to whether or to what extent dues of this kind are to be levied at all. No distinction is allowed, with reference to the payment of dues, between natives and strangers.

§ 69. The local police authorities, in conjunction with the communal authorities, have the power, within the limits of the provisions of § 65 to § 68, of establishing market regulations according to local requirements, particularly of assigning the place where articles of the same kind are to be offered for sale, and of fixing what goods, whether cried or not, are to be sold by itinerant vendors, and at what time of day.

§ 70. Markets which are held on special occasions, or for the sale of particular kinds of commodities, are to be subject to the regulations at present in force.

The trade of these markets may be extended by the

competent authorities with the consent of the authorities of the commune.

§ 71. All restrictions upon the sale of articles brought to fairs and markets and not sold, are abolished herewith. The separate sale of such articles out of market hours is only permitted, however, under the same conditions of sale as would be allowed if they had not been brought to market.

Part V.—Regulation Charges ("Taxen").

§ 72. No regulation charges fixed by the police are to be established in future, except as hereinafter directed.

Existing regulation charges are to be abolished within a certain period to be fixed by the local police authorities which is not to exceed a year at the utmost.

§ 73. Bakers, and sellers of breadstuffs, may be compelled by the local police authorities to acquaint the public with the prices and weights of their different sorts of bread, by posting up a notice in a conspicuous part of their premises, for such time as the authorities may prescribe.

This placard must be stamped by the police, free of cost, and hung up daily during the hours of sale.

§ 74. Bakers and salesmen, when they are only allowed to sell their bread and breadstuffs at the prices posted up in their shops, may also be obliged by the local police authorities to put up scales in their shops, with the necessary standard weights, and to allow them to be used for reweighing bread which has been bought.

§ 75. Innkeepers may be compelled by the local police authorities to hand in a list of the prices fixed by them, and to post it up in the rooms frequented by visitors. These prices may be altered at any time, but they remain in force until the change has been notified to the police authorities, and the amended list has been posted up in the rooms. The police authorities may decide provisionally, under reserve of legal proceedings, upon complaints made by travellers of overcharges

§ 76. The local police authorities, in conjunction with the authorities of the commune, have the right of fixing regulation charges for valets de place, and others, who offer their services in the public streets and squares,

or at hotels (§ 37); also for the use of carriages, horses, sedan-chairs, boats, and other means of conveyance, established for the service of the public.

§ 77. The local police authorities can also, in conjunction with the authorities of the commune, establish regulation charges for chimney-sweepers, when a district has been exclusively assigned to them, or the subordinate administrative authorities may fix regulation charges when the district assigned includes more than one locality.

§ 78. The present law makes no change with respect to regulation charges in the case of persons carrying on an industry, who have to be sworn and installed by the authorities, as stipulated in § 36. The authorities pointed out in § 36, are empowered to introduce regulation charges for such persons where they do not already exist.

§ 79. Persons engaged in any of the industries mentioned in § 73 to § 78, have the right of reducing the regulation prices and charges,

§ 80. The scale of charges for apothecaries, may be fixed by the central authorities; but these prices may be lowered by free consent.

The payment of authorized doctors, &c. (§ 29), is left to private arrangement.

In the absence of any arrangement, and as a guide in disputed cases, regulation charges may be fixed by the central authorities.

Part VI.—Trade Corporations (Guilds, &c.)

1.—*Existing Corporations.*

§ 81. All trade corporations (companies, guilds, &c.), legally existing at the present time, may continue to do so. Their statutes (guild articles, &c.), are to remain in force in so far as they are not changed by the provisions of the present law, or affected by the stipulations of § 92.

§ 82. Every member of a guild has a right at any time, subject to the discharge of his obligations, of retiring, and of continuing the same trade after his withdrawal. A member withdrawing from a guild, loses all

claim to the property of the guild, and to collateral funds, either wholly or partially founded by it, unless the statutes of the guild prescribe differently.

§ 83. The following persons may be prevented from entering a guild :—

1. Those who have been deprived of their civil rights.

2. Those who are temporarily deprived of the exercise of their civil rights.

3. Bankrupts.

§ 84. Subject to the foregoing provision (§ 83), no one can be refused admittance to a guild, who has fulfilled the conditions prescribed by the statutes.

If an examination is necessary for admittance to a guild, the examination must be directed to prove that the person is qualified te carry on the ordinary work of his trade on his own account.

The expenses of admittance into a guild, as also the sum required to cover the cost of the examination by the person undergoing it, are to be settled by the guild. No preference must be shown.

Certificates of having passed the examination given by the special examiners appointed for particular trades, or by commissions hitherto qualified to examine, are to be considered as sufficient proof of capacity to carry on the trade in respect of which the certificate was issued.

No one who has worked on his own account at a trade for one year at least, can be called upon to furnish a proof of his qualification.

§ 85. The entrance money to be paid on admission into a guild, must be the same for all the members. When it amounts to more than 5 dollars (15*s.*), it cannot be raised without the sanction of the superior administrative authorities. This sanction is also required when the entrance money does not exceed 5 dollars, and is to be raised about that amount. Joining a guild, does not preclude a person from being a member of other guilds.

§ 86. By a decision of the guild, any one under the circumstances mentioned in § 83, Nos. 1, 2, and 3, may be debarred from the exercise of his vote, and also deprived of his honourable rights in the guild.

§ 87. When the trade of a deceased member of the guild is continued by a representative for the benefit of the widow, or of heirs under age, the right and obliga-

tions of the deceased member, with the exception of the right of voting at the guild meetings, are transferred to the widow for the term of her widowhood, or to the heirs under age during their minority.

§ 88. The guild is represented in all judicial and extra-judicial proceedings by its presiding Board ("Vorstand").

The legal qualification of the latter to act as such, must be certified by the communal authorities.

Its representative jurisdiction extends to all affairs and legal proceedings, for which a special power of attorney is required by law.

Where the statutes ("articles of the company," or "articles of the guild") delegate to one or more members of the presiding Board the office of representing the guild in public ("nach aussen"), the *status quo* is maintained.

§ 89. Contracts made by the guild for the acquisition, sale, or mortgage, of real property, and for loans for a longer period than one year, secured upon the real property of the guild, or upon its revenues, require the sanction of the communal authorities.

§ 90. Payments to members of the guild out of its receipts, or property, are allowed only when they are in accordance with the express provisions of the guild statutes. Payments of this nature are never to be made to defray expenses of living.

§ 91. The payment of contributions to the guild, or of fines incurred by members of the guild for breaches of the statutory regulations, is no longer to be enforced by the intervention of the State.

§ 92. The statutes may be altered by an absolute majority of those present at a meeting of the guild, to which the whole of the members entitled to vote, have received a written invitation, distinctly setting forth the proposed subject of deliberation. This decision must be ratified by the superior administrative authority when it deals with payments out of the receipts or property of the guild to members, or otherwise disposes of property belonging to the guild. The authorities cannot refuse to give their consent, if it is shown that full security remains for the discharge of all the existing obligations of the guild; and, in case of dissolution, for the observance of the regulations prescribed by § 94.

§ 93. A guild has the power of dissolving itself by the vote of an absolute majority of those present, at a meeting to which all members entitled to vote have received a written invitation distinctly stating the proposed subject of deliberation. This decision requires the sanction of the superior administrative authorities. The sanction must be given if the debts have been discharged and due security given for the observance of the Regulations prescribed in § 94.

§ 94. On the dissolution of a guild its property must be applied in the first instance to the settlement of its debts and to the discharge of any other obligations which it may have. If the property was applied up to that time, either wholly or in part, to the foundation of schools or to other public purposes, it must still continue to be so applied. If this object is not sufficiently carried out by other means, the property in question is to revert to the Commune, upon the latter undertaking all the charges upon it.

The right of a guild on its dissolution to divide the net residue of its property amongst its actual members extends only to property arising from the contributions of those members. The remainder of the property, unless otherwise expressly enacted by the statutes or by the laws of the State, must be handed over to the Commune in which the guild had its seat, to be used for industrial purposes.

In case of any disputes, arising out of the preceding provisions, between the Commune and guild, a power of arbitration rests with the superior administrative authorities.

The latter are also empowered, on the dissolution of a guild, to confer corporate rights upon schools, aid funds ("Hülfskassen"), and other institutions established for public objects which have been in connection with the guild.

The preceding Rules are applicable also in case of the extinction of a guild by the death of all its members.

§ 95. The Communal authorities exercise a supervision over guilds. They have to decide disputes about the reception and exclusion of members, the election of the presiding Board, and the rights and duties of the latter. An appeal lies against their decision to the

superior administrative authority; but the appeal must be lodged with the Communal authorities within four weeks, or the right of appeal is forfeited.

Meetings of a guild held for the purpose of altering the statutes, or of dissolving the guild, must be attended by the Communal authorities, represented by one of them, or by some one Commissioner by them for the purpose. They take no part in any other deliberations of the guild, and henceforth they have nothing to do with ratifying the election of the presiding Board.

§ 96. All provisions of the laws or of the guild statutes which confer greater powers upon the Communal authorities in matters of the guilds than are conferred by the present Law, are hereby repealed.

2.—*New Guilds.*

§ 97. All persons carrying on similar or kindred trades may join in forming a guild.

New guilds acquire the rights of corporation as soon as their statutes have been confirmed.

§ 98. The object of new guilds must be to advance the common interests of their trades.

§ 99. The statutes of the guild must be approved by the superior administrative authorities.

§ 100. The statutes must determine the conditions upon which members are to be received into the guild, the rights and duties of members, the scale upon which the associates of the guild are to be charged for current contributions, and the particular consequences resulting from neglect to pay them, the composition of the presiding Board, and also the arrangements for administrating the common affairs of the guild.

§ 101. Every guild must have a presiding Board ("Vorstand"), the members of which are to be elected by the associates of the guild.

§ 102. The amount and application of the contributions, and the administration of the finances and accounts, are to be regulated by resolutions passed by the guild.

§ 103. The provisions of §§ 82 to 96 are applicable also to new guilds.

§ 104. Corporations of merchants, in which no exclusive trade privileges have been vested, are not subject to the Rules laid down in this section (Part VI).

Part VII.—Assistant Workmen, Journeymen, Apprentices, Factory Operatives.

I.—*Position of Journeymen, Assistant Workmen, and Apprentices.*

1.—*General Provisions.*

§ 105. The relations to be established between persons exercising a trade on their own account and their journeymen, assistants, and apprentices, are matter for mutual arrangement between the parties.

Nobody is bound to work on Sundays and holidays, unless an agreement has been made to do so in cases of urgency.

§ 106. It is the duty of the authorities designated for the purpose by the laws of each State to insure that, where apprentices are employed, due regard is paid to their health and morals, and that those apprentices who still require religious and school instruction are allowed time for the purpose.

Journeymen, assistants, and apprentices, until they have completed their eighteenth year, or particular classes of them, can be compelled by local statute ("Ortsstatut") or bye-law of a Commune (§ 142), to frequent a local school to complete their education "Vortbildungschule"), and employers and masters are bound to afford them the necessary time for attending it.

§ 107. Every person setting up a trade is bound at his own cost to make and maintain such arrangements with reference to the special nature of the trade and of the premises in which it is carried on, as are necessary to secure the workmen as far as possible from danger to life and health.

§ 108. Disputes between masters and their journeymen, assistants, and apprentices, with reference to the

commencement, continuation, or cessation of their labour engagements or apprenticeship, or as to what the parties are reciprocally bound to do whilst the engagement lasts, or in respect of the certificates mentioned in §§ 113 and 114, whether they are to be given, or what they are to contain, are to be referred for settlement to the special authorities, if any, constituted for that purpose, or, when no such authorities exist, to the authorities of the Commune.

The parties interested may appeal from the decision of the Communal authorities to the Courts of Law within ten days, after which time the right lapses, but the decision must be provisionally carried out at once.

A power of deciding such cases may be vested by local statute (§ 142) in Courts of Arbitration ("Schiedsgerichte") in place of the authorities at present designated for the purpose. They must be organized by the Communal authorities, and must be composed equally of employers and workmen.

2.—*Special Provisions.*

(*a.*)—*Journeymen and Assistants.*

§ 109. Journeymen and assistant workmen are bound to comply with the regulations made by their employers in respect to the work assigned to them and to domestic arrangements, but they are not obliged to do any household work.

§ 110. The relations between employers and their journeymen and assistant workmen may be terminated reciprocally, unless a contrary agreement has been made, by giving fourteen days previous notice to that effect.

§ 111. Journeymen and assistant workmen can be dismissed before the expiration of their contract, and without previous notice,—

(1.) If they are guilty of theft or embezzlement, or if they lead a dissolute life;

(2.) If they persistently refuse to discharge the duties imposed upon them by their contract;

(3.) If, in spite of warnings, they are careless in the use of fire and lights;

(4.) If they commit acts of violence, or are guilty of

gross insults towards their employer or the members of his family;

(5.) If they hold suspicious intercourse with members of the family of the employer, or seduce their fellow-workmen to do things which are contrary to law or good morals;

(6.) If they are incapable of continuing their work, or if they are affected with an offensive disease.

The terms of the contract, and the general provisions of the laws are to determine whether, in any of the six above-mentioned cases, the person dismissed is entitled to compensation.

§ 112. Journeymen and assistant workmen may quit their employment before the expiration of their contract, and without previous notice,—

(1.) If they are incapacitated for work;

(2.) If the employer is guilty of acts of violence or gross insult towards them or members of their families;

(3.) If the employer, or members of his family, endeavour to seduce them, or members of their families, to do anything contrary to law or good morals;

(4.) If the employer does not pay the wages which are due in the manner agreed upon, or, when the journeymen and assistants are paid by piecework, does not give them sufficient employment, or takes illegal advantage of them;

(5.) If, by continuing to work, they would expose their lives or health to evident risk, which was not apparent at the time when they agreed to the contract.

§ 113. Journeymen and assistants, on leaving, are entitled to a certificate stating the nature and length of their employment, which the communal authorities must attest and stamp gratis if the parties concerned desire it, and if there is nothing to object to in what the certificate contains. If journeymen and assistants require it, the certificate must also mention their conduct.

The legal obligation to carry about labour-books ("livrets") is abolished.

§ 114. Journeymen and assistants are unrestricted in the choice of their masters or employers.

There is no obligation to travel about. Travelling journeymen and assistants have no claim for assistance from their associates in the trade.

(*b.*)—*Apprentices.*

§ 115. Any one is to be considered as an apprentice who works under a master for the purpose of learning a trade, whether he pays a premium for learning it or gives his labour gratuitously, or whether he receives wages for his labour.

The provisions of §§ 106, 116, 117, and 119 are not applicable to apprentices over 18 years of age.

§ 116. Persons who have been deprived, for other than political crimes and offences, of the full enjoyment of their civil rights, or who have been legally condemned for theft or fraud, are excluded during the period of their deprivation, unless they have been reinstated, from the right of keeping apprentices.

§ 117. No one exercising a trade, and who is debarred from the right of keeping apprentices, is allowed to keep on those whom he had previously taken.

§ 118. The master must take care to train the apprentice to become an efficient journeyman by employing and instructing him. He is not to deprive the apprentice of the necessary time and opportunity for becoming so by employing him in other services. He must endeavour to train the apprentice to industrious and good habits, and to keep him from vice and debauchery.

§ 119. The apprentice is placed under the paternal discipline of the master, and in the absence of the latter is bound to obey the journeyman or assistant who represents him.

§ 120. An apprenticeship may be terminated by the master before its expiration in the cases specified in § 111. In the absence of any special agreement relative to such a contingency, the apprentice's premium ("Lehrgeld") is invariably to be paid for the term which has elapsed. If the apprentice is dismissed for any of the first five causes specified in § 111 the master has right, by way of compensation, to the premium for another half-year.

§ 121. An apprenticeship may be terminated against the will of the master before its expiration when he grossly neglects the duties imposed upon him by § 118, or abuses the right of paternal discipline.

If the question is decided against the master (§ 108)

legal proceedings can be taken against him to oblige him to repay the additional cost of providing for the apprentice elsewhere.

The master is liable in a similar manner if his right to keep apprentices is withdrawn from him (§ 117.)

§ 122. An apprenticeship may be terminated against the will of the master before the expiration of its term if he changes his trade or calling. In that case the master, unless there was an agreement to the contrary, is entitled to receive the fee for the ensuing half year.

§ 123. Articles of apprenticeship are cancelled by the death of the master of the apprentice.

They may also be cancelled at the instance of either party when the master or the apprentice is unable to fulfil the obligations which he has contracted.

§ 124. On the dissolution of his apprenticeship the apprentice may claim a certificate from his master, stating the length of time during which he has served, the knowledge and degree of skill which he has acquired during his apprenticeship, and also what has been his general conduct. If the parties desire it, this certificate, if it contains nothing that is objected to, must be attested and stamped free of cost by the communal authorities.

§ 125. No fees are to be levied on the reception or dismissal of apprentices.

§ 126. The provisions of §§ 105 to 115, and of §§ 118 to 125, with the exception of the second part of § 106, are not applicable to apothecaries' assistants and apprentices, or to merchants, or foremen of works in factories. The position of the latter as regards their relations to their masters and employers is to continue to be regulated as heretofore.

Factory Operatives.

§ 127. The provisions of §§ 105 to 114 are applicable also to factory operatives.

§ 128. Children under 12 years of age are not to be taken into regular employment in factories.

Children under 14 years of age can only be employed in factories on condition of their receiving three hours' instruction daily in a school approved by the superior administrative authorities. They must not be employed for more than six hours a day.

Youths above 14 years of age, until they have completed their 16th year, are not to work in the factories for more than ten hours a day. Even these hours of labour may be reduced by the central authority to six if the young operatives are still bound to attend school according to the system of education in force in different parts of the Confederation.

The local police authorities are empowered to allow these hours of labour to be prolonged by one hour, as a maximum, and during four weeks at the utmost if the regular business of the factory has been interrupted, or an increase of work has been rendered necessary by some casualty or accident of nature.

§ 129. Young operatives (referred to in § 128) are to be allowed half-an-hour's interval of rest both in the morning and in the afternoon, and a full hour at noon, with liberty of exercise in the open air at each time.

The hours of labour are not to commence before 5·30 A.M., and not to continue beyond 8·30 P.M.

Juvenile operatives are not to work on Sundays and holidays, or during the hours set aside by their spiritual pastors for instruction in the catechism or for confirmation.

§ 130. Any person engaging a juvenile operative for regular employment in a factory, must give previous notice to that effect to the local police authorities.

The employer must draw up a list of the juvenile operatives in his employ, giving their names, ages, residence, the names of their parents, and the time of their entry into the factory or discharge from it, to be hung up in the workroom, and a copy of it shown to the police and school authorities whenever they ask to see it. He must report every six months to the local police authorities the number of such operatives in his employ.

§ 131. No juvenile operative can be received into regular employment until the father or guardian of the operative has presented the employer with a workbook ("Arbeitsbuch").

This workbook, prefaced by §§ 128 to 133 of the present law, is to be issued by the local police authorities at the request of the father or guardian of the juvenile operative, and must contain—

(1.) The name of the operative, and the day and year of his birth;

(2.) The name, condition, and address of the father or guardian;

(3.) A certificate of the operative having previously attended school;

(4.) A column for his present school obligations;

(5.) A column for registering his admittance into the factory;

(6.) A column for registering the time of his leaving it;

(7.) A column for the inspector's minutes.

This book is to be kept in the custody of the employer, to be shown by him at any time to the authorities if they ask for it, and to be returned to the father or guardian when the operative ceases to be employed.

§ 132. Special officers, who are charged with the duty of seeing that the foregoing regulations (§§ 128 to 133) are carried out, are invested with all the official authority of the local police authorities, including the right of inspecting the factories at any time.

The proprietors of industrial establishments are bound at any time, even at night, when work is going on, to allow them to be officially inspected in accordance with the prescriptions of §§ 128 to 133.

§ 133. The central authority is authorized to issue exceptional directions for a fixed period, not exceeding one year at the utmost, in respect to such industrial establishments as would be deprived of their necessary working power ("Arbeitskraft") by carrying out the regulations laid down in §§ 128 and 129.

In the case of juvenile operatives already in employment when the present law comes into operation, the notice enjoined by § 130 must be given to the local police authorities within four weeks.

§ 134. Owners of factories, and all persons trading in whole or part manufactured goods, are bound to pay the wages of the workmen employed in manufacturing them in money.

They are not permitted to supply the workmen with goods on credit.

On the other hand, they may furnish their workmen

with lodging, firing, the use of ground, regular board, medicines, and medical attendance, besides tools and materials for their manufactures, and reckon this in the payment of their wages.

§ 135. The rules laid down in § 134 apply to members of the families, assistants, agents, managers, overseers, and factors of the employers specified therein, as also to all those carrying on a business in which one of the persons above named takes a part directly or indirectly.

§ 136. Under the head of operatives ("Arbeiter") (§ 134) are included also those who, out of the factory, prepare for the factory owners, or persons in a similar position, the whole or part-manufactured articles which they require in their business, or who dispose of such articles to the factory owners, without making a trade of selling them to consumers.

§ 137. Operatives whose claims, contrary to the rules laid down in §§ 134 to 136, have been settled otherwise than by payment in money, may at any time exact payment of their claims in cash, without being met by the objection that they have received an equivalent. This equivalent, if it is still in possession of the recipient, or if he has realized anything by it, reverts to the fund mentioned in § 139, Part 2.

§ 138. All contracts at variance with §§ 134 to 136 are null and void.

Likewise all agreements between owners of factories, or persons in a similar position, on the one hand, and operatives on the other, in respect to the latter purchasing their necessaries at certain shops or stores, and in respect to the profits derived from them being applied to any other purpose than to promote arrangements for improving the condition of the operatives or their families (§ 134).

§ 139. Factory owners, and persons in a similar position, can neither sue for the value of goods with which they have supplied operatives in spite of the prohibition, nor refund themselves by deducting the amount from their payments to the operatives, or by any other means, no matter whether the claims have arisen directly or indirectly.

Pecuniary claims of this nature are to be appropriated for the benefit of the sick funds, burial funds, savings' banks, or other aid funds established in the Commune

where the operative resides, for the particular class of operatives to which he belongs. If there are several such funds existing the claim is to be divided equally amongst them all, and failing institutions of this kind it goes to the poor-box.

Part VIII.—Industrial Aid-Funds ("Hulfskassen").

§ 140. The obligation imposed by local statute or by order of the administrative authorities upon persons carrying on an independent industry to contribute to sick aid or burial funds, whether these are connected with guilds, or established independently of them for artizans exercising an industry on their own account, is abolished. No change is made in other respects in the status of these funds by the present law.

New funds established by independent artizans for the above named purposes, on receiving the sanction of the superior administrative authorities acquire Corporate rights ("Rechte juristischer Personen"), in so far as the acquisition of such rights depends upon the special sanction of the State.

§ 141. Until a Federal Law has been issued on the subject, the laws of each country relating to sick, aid, and burial funds for journeymen, assistants, and factory operatives, remain in force.

Meanwhile the obligation imposed by local statute, or by an ordinance of the administrative authority upon journeymen assistants, apprentices, and factory operatives, to join a particular sick, aid, or burial fund, is abolished as regards those who prove that they belong to some other sick, aid, or burial fund.

Part IX.—Local Statutes ("Ortsstatuten").

§ 142. Local statutes are invested with a compulsory power of regulating all those matters connected with industry which the law has transferred to them. These statutes are framed in pursuance of a resolution passed

by the Commune, after hearing persons engaged in trade who are concerned in the matter. The statutes must be confirmed by the superior administrative authorities.

The central authority has the power of annulling local statutes which are at variance with the laws.

Part X.—Penal Clauses.

§ 143. Apart from the power of withdrawing licenses and the prohibitory power which are conferred by the present law (§ 15, Part II, and § 35), the right of exercising a trade or calling cannot be taken away by a judicial or administrative decision.

Exceptions to this principle, founded upon the Excise Laws, are to be maintained so long as those laws remain in force.

In like manner, the law of each State, whether compulsory or permissive, in virtue of which the right to exercise an independent industry is withdrawn by a judicial sentence as a penalty inflicted for a breach of the Press Laws, remains in force.

Those provisions of the laws of a State, in virtue of which the right of publishing and selling printed matter within the limits of the North German Confederation, is liable to be withdrawn by an Act of the Administration, are hereby repealed.

§ 144. Existing laws have to decide how far, independently of the rules laid down on the subject of depriving a person of the right to exercise an industry (§ 143), breaches of professional duty are to be subject to penalties.

The special provisions, however, now in force, as regards the medical profession, and which oblige them under penalties to give medical aid, are repealed.

§ 145. What the minimum of punishment is to be, what the proportion of fine to imprisonment, and what lapse of time is necessary to bar proceedings for the offence specified in § 153, are left to the laws of each country to decide. In respect to all other acts punishable under this Section (Part X) penalties are barred after a lapse of three months.

§ 146. Contraventions of §§ 134 to 136 are punishable with a fine not exceeding 500 dollars (75*l.*), and, in

default of payment, to a proportionate term of imprisonment not exceeding six months. On a repetition of the offence, the penalty is to be doubled.

The fines are to be appropriated to the same fund as that into which the pecuniary claims mentioned in § 139 are to be paid, as prescribed therein.

Every sentence, as soon as it becomes legally valid, must be published, at the expense of the person sentenced, in the official organ of the superior administrative authority of the district and in other public journals of the provincial circle ("Kreis") in which the latter and the operative in question reside.

§ 147. The following are to be punished with a fine not exceeding 100 dollars (15*l.*), and, in case of inability to pay, to a proportionate term of imprisonment, not exceeding six weeks:—

(1.) Any one beginning or continuing to carry on any stationary trade or profession which requires a previous special authorization (whether in the form of concession, sanction, or installation), without such prescribed authorization, or who deviates from the conditions laid down in the authorization.

(2.) Any one, without the necessary authorization, founding an industrial establishment which, either with reference to the situation or nature of the premises in which the business is carried on, or to the locality, requires a special authorization (§§ 16 to 24), or anyone who, without a fresh authorization, makes important changes in the premises, or transfers them to some other place, or introduces substantial changes into the mode of carrying on the business.

(3.) Any one signing himself as a doctor (surgeon, accoucheur, dentist, veterinary surgeon), or giving himself similar titles without having been approved as such, thereby inducing the belief that he is a certificated doctor.

If by doing so he commits at the same time a breach of the Inland Revenue Laws ("Steuergesetze"), he does not subject himself on that account to an additional penalty, but in fixing the penalty this circumstance must be taken into consideration.

In the case referred to under No. 2, the police authorities have power to order the works either to be removed altogether or else to be placed on a footing

corresponding with the conditions under which they were licensed.

§ 148. The following are to be punished with a fine not exceeding 15 dollars (7*l.* 10*s.*), and. in default of payment, with imprisonment for a term not exceeding four weeks :—

(1.) Any one who, in addition to the cases anticipated in § 147, commences a business without giving the prescribed notice.

(2.) Any one neglecting to give notice, as prescribed by § 14, of his assuming or resigning a fire insurance agency business.

(3.) Any one neglecting to notify, as required in § 14, where his place of business is.

(4.) Any one acting contrary to a prohibition to carry on an industry, issued under § 35.

(5.) Any one contravening § 43.

(6.) Any one who, in going about in quest of orders for goods, infringes the rules prescribed in § 44.

(7.) Any one exercising an itinerant trade or profession without a warrant ("Legitimationsschein").

(8.) Any one who, in the course of his trade or profession, makes charges in excess of those prescribed or sanctioned by the authorities.

(9.) Any one grossly neglecting his duties as master towards the apprentices confided to his care.

(10.) Any one acting in opposition to the provisions of § 107 in spite of being called upon by the authorities to carry them out.

The penalty is omitted in all these cases when the offence involves at the same time a breach of the Inland Revenue Laws.

§ 149. The following are to be punished with a fine not exceeding 10 dollars (1*l.* 10*s.*), and, in case of inability to pay, with a term of imprisonment not exceeding eight days :—

(1.) Any one who engages in business of an industrial nature, for which a "Legitimationsschein" is required by § 4, without possessing one and carrying it about with him.

(2.) Any one following an itinerant trade or occupation and not carrying about with him his "Legitimationsschein," or if he transfers it to another person.

(3.) Any one following an itinerant trade or occupation

for which he has received a "Legitimationsschein," valid for a particular district (§ 60), and extending it without authorization to another district.

(4.) Any one acting contrary to the provisions of § 61.

(5.) Any one taking unauthorized attendants about with him in his itinerant trade or profession, or any one serving as attendant to an itinerant trader or professional person without an authorization.

(6.) Any one transgressing the police ordinances respecting market traffic.

(7.) Any one neglecting to give the notices or to draw up the lists prescribed in §§ 130 and 133.

§ 150. Any one who engages or employs juvenile operatives contrary to the rules laid down in §§ 128 and 129, is to be punished with a fine not exceeding 5 dollars, and, if unable to pay, with a proportionate term of imprisonment, not exceeding three days, for every operative engaged or employed contrary to the regulations.

If he has already been punished three times during the last five years under the foregoing rule, he can be condemned to the loss of the right to employ juvenile operatives, for a definite period, or for the future.

If he has already been punished six times during the last five years, he is to be condemned to the loss of this right for at least three months.

Non-compliance with sentences of the above-mentioned kind is to be punished with a fine of four times the amount fixed by the first portion of the present clause, and, in case of inability to pay, with a proportionate term of imprisonment.

§ 151. When the police regulations are infringed in the exercise of an industry by the representative of the person engaged in it, the penalty falls upon the representative; if the transgression occurred with the previous knowledge of the person represented, and if he has a power of control, both of them are subject to the penalty imposed by law. Should this not be the case, the person represented is bound to dismiss his representative under pain of forfeiting the concession, sanction, &c.

§ 152. All prohibitions and penal provisions directed against persons engaged in industry, trade assistants, journeymen, or factory operatives, on the ground of their co-operating and uniting for the purpose of

obtaining more favourable wages and conditions of labour, more especially by means of strikes or discharge of workmen, are repealed.

Any one taking part in such agreements or coalitions can withdraw from them whenever he chooses, without any complaint being lodged against him or objection made in consequence.

§ 153. Any one inducing, or seeking to induce, others by physical force, threats, or outrages, or by placing them under an interdict ("Verrufserklarung"), to take part in these coalitions (§ 152) will be punished with not more than three months' imprisonment, unless the general criminal law inflicts a severer penalty.

Final Provisions.

§ 154. The provisions of §§ 128 to 139 apply to the owners of, and similarly to the workmen employed in mines, works for dressing ores, and pits and quarries worked underground.

The enactments under which the aforesaid workmen are threatened with penalties for gross insubordination, for being persistently refractory, or for leaving their work, are repealed.

§ 155. Wherever reference is made in the present law to the laws of the State, the latter are to be considered to include also the Ordinances issued in conformity with them and with the constitution.

The central authority of the Confederation will notify what authorities in each separate State are referred to under the titles of superior administrative authorities, subordinate administrative authorities, communal authorities, local authorities, subordinate authorities, police authorities, and local police authorities.

§ 156. Parts I, II, IV to X of the present law are to come into operation in three months from the date of its promulgation; Part III is to come into operation on the 1st of January, 1870.

The law of July 8, 1868, relating to the exercise of stationary industries will cease to be operative in three months from the date of the promulgation of the present law.

No. 5.

Mr. Lumley to the Earl of Clarendon.—(Received December 20.)

My Lord, *Brussels, December* 18, 1869.

In obedience to the instructions conveyed to me in your Lordship's Circular, dated the 30th of April last, Mr. Pakenham, Her Majesty's Secretary of Legation at Brussels, has drawn up a Report, which I have the honour herewith to transmit to your Lordship; and in which will be found, in a concise form, an accurate and interesting account of the condition of the industrial classes in Belgium.

I have, &c.

(Signed) J. SAVILE LUMLEY.

Inclosure in No. 5.

Report by Mr. Pakenham on the Artizan and Industrial Classes of Belgium.

Brussels, December 18, 1869.

A detailed account of the condition of the industrial classes of Belgium is, at present, not easy to obtain, owing to the absence of accurate information and the great variety of wages,—depending on the nature of the work, the skill and responsibility of the workmen, the price of provisions and lodgings, and the habits of members of particular trades.

It is found, however, here as elsewhere that workmen may for general purposes be divided into two classes, viz., those whose work is not of a nature to require accurate finish, involving more than ordinary risk to health or moral responsibility, and those whose employment requires skilled hands, more or less of mental exertion, or which must necessarily, from whatever cause, lead to frequent loss of life or physical ailment.

This definition would, if accurate, place in the one class the agricultural and unskilled labourer of all ordinary trades, including inferior factory hands and the floating mass of restless jobbers; and, in the other, skilled hands,—men of good technical education, and

those working in metals, glass, chemicals, and mines; but it appears to be well-known to those familiar with their habits that a large proportion of the members of those trades highly paid on account of risk to health not only greatly aggravate their statements in the matter of detriment to health, but by their own extravagance reduce themselves, in an economical point of view, to a level with their brethren of the lower class. The classification is, therefore, true as regards wages, but inaccurate as regards the condition of the workmen.

In the opinion of the President of the Commission for regulating Friendly Societies, and of the President of the Council of "Prud'hommes," the inferior class gain from 1*s.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* a day, and the superior from 3*s.* 6*d.* to 8*s.*, according to the amount of skill, responsibility, and risk involved.

Public attention seems to have been first directed to the condition of the working classes of Belgium many years since by M. Visschers, now President of the Commission for Friendly Societies, who being in England in 1839, and at subsequent periods, was struck with the efforts made there for the amelioration of their position.

Little seems, however, to have been really done, notwithstanding the strenuous and kindly efforts of M. Charles Rogier and others, till the period of the Statistical Congress at Brussels in 1853, when the Government caused Returns to be made from the most important towns and communes on the following basis. The workmen were to be divided into three classes:—

1. Those receiving public relief;
2. Those just beyond the necessity of such aid, whether privately administered or from frugal habits;
3. Those who were thoroughly independent.

Three families were to be taken of each class, consisting of father, mother, and four children, aged 16, 12, 6, and 2 respectively, and an average was to be struck of expenses and receipts.

These returns were published by the late M. Duspetiaux, Inspector of Charitable Institutions and Prisons in 1855, and form the latest authoritative information on the subject, though positively not altogether accurate; and as the scale of wages has certainly not made greater progress in a larger ratio than the price of lodgings and

provisions, the general result of a similar inquiry at the present time would be much the same.

Although these Returns are occasionally rendered somewhat inaccurate, owing to some provinces having deliberately disregarded the required classification, it may be safely stated that a family earning less than 40*l.* a-year, if inhabiting a town, and 36*l.* if in the country, must, more or less, depend on public charity; nor do they become entirely independent till their income amounts to from 60*l.* to 80*l.* This would give a daily wage of about 2*s.* 6*d.* as the minimum of independence, allowing for a holiday on Sundays and thirteen fêtes, an allowance frequently greatly exceeded; but the average payment of an ordinary hand in such trades as carpenters, masons, smiths, tailors, and the like, is from 1*s.* 4*d.* to 1*s.* 8*d.* a-day, 2*s.* being good wages; and though the earnings of the rest of the family must be added to this, making in all perhaps rather more than the sum required (2*s.* 6*d.*), regard being had to the habits of the workman in this country, the annual result will be found to leave a considerable deficit; for not only does a feeling of spurious independence render him captious and "difficile," but the custom of passing every Monday in idleness (possibly assisted by the orgies indulged in during the preceding day), the curse of the day labourer in this country, causes another deduction of at least forty days from his pay, and, according to a pamphlet on the subject addressed to workmen in general, to which my attention has been drawn, adds 8*l.* or 10*l.* to his expenses, making a total loss of at least 12*l.* a-year. And to show how great a hold this habit has on some classes, it may be mentioned that in divers trades—notably shoemakers and tailors—the men deliberately make a rule of finishing and taking home their work on Sundays, and of passing the whole of this day and the entire Monday in idleness. If we add to this an average of fourteen days out of work, and seven days' "leisure," or casual incapacity, there remain but 236 working days in the year, which is not, I think, too low an estimate for the class of which I speak, though, no doubt, there are some steady hands among them.

It is obvious, therefore, that a large proportion of journeymen must be included in the first category, being

extricated from their difficulties by regular extraneous aid, and the writer of the pamphlet above mentioned complains that they have come to regard this assistance rather as their due than otherwise.

It must, however, be always borne in mind that in many trades, carpenters, tailors, shoemakers, and the like, the proportion of daily workmen to masters is very small, and the majority of those working for themselves, and employing continuous or occasional aid, would in England be working for others. It would, therefore, be erroneous to compare the journeyman with the same class in countries where greater capital is required for independent action.

In Brussels, for example, a good ordinary carpenter, working for himself, and having a few pounds of capital or credit to buy wood, earns from 4*s*. to 6*s*. a-day, and has as much work as he can undertake. As soon as his income allows he rents a small house in which his wife starts a little shop, renting the upper rooms to others of their class.

Ultimately the husband becomes a master carpenter, in our acceptation of the term, and takes contracts or builds on his own account, which is usually the dream of the lesser bourgeois. In what may be termed the domestic trades, in fact, the journeyman is, as a rule, either a young or an improvident workman, for a good hand can generally set up for himself. Such being the financial position of the inferior hands, it is almost superfluous to allude to the poverty of their nourishment; little or no meat, inferior bread with grease, potatoes, vegetable soups, and floods of weak coffee and chicory, with bad milk, form the staple of their diet in towns, while in the country it is slightly better, owing to the greater purity of flour and milk, and the cheapness of vegetables; but, on the whole, I believe their position to be inferior to that of the same class in England, except in the poorer parts of London, being little above that of our worst paid agricultural labourer. Their lodgings are simply deplorable; they herd together in the most dismal streets of the great cities or crowd the damp hovels which surround the country towns and the pit-mouth; their dwellings are as fine a field for epidemics of every description as it is possible to conceive, as they are seldom able to afford more than one room, to which a lodger

is frequently admitted. The moral taint of overcrowding falls heavily upon them. I may mention, for instance, that a room about 14 feet by 10 in one of the most prosperous faubourgs contained, a few days since, a father and mother, a dead child, a boy of 6 years, a baby at the breast, and two taken in to nurse, a state of things rather remarkable from the locality; for in the low town and the older blocks concealed by fashionable streets, it would, perhaps, be rather the rule than the exception.

Turning now to the second class, which may be denominated as that of responsible labour, viz., the better class of factory hands, workers in iron, copper, glass, and skilled labourers of all kinds, we find another state of things; the wages are higher and the workman is more steady.

In factories the better hands are paid from 2*s.* 6*d.* to 8*s.* for men, and the women about 1*s.* 6*d.* per day.

Colliers earn from 3*s.* 6*d.* to 4*s.* per diem. Engine drivers from 5*s.* to 8*s.* besides a per-centage on fuel saved. Overlookers of mines receive from 60*l.* to 80*l.* Engineers in charge of mines about 80*l.* Coppersmiths are very well paid, a family being estimated to earn about 80*l.*

Colliers' families are said to earn only about 45*l.*, and an "armurier" about 32*l.*, but, in this matter, the returns of the Province of Liege are not particularly lucid. Agricultural labourers being the only persons who do not declare a deficit.

This seems to be owing to an uneasy feeling of having been unfairly dealt by, as would appear to have been the case in at any rate some instances, since the best paid workman, the coppersmith, earning 85*l.* declares a deficit of 13*l.*, and there is a variation of 16*l.* between the declared wages, and of 40*l.* between the expenses of two typographers, one of whom in receipt of 50*l.* boldly declares a deficit of 30*l.* This inaccuracy is the more to be regretted as the Province of Liege is the most interesting of all, as regards the principal branches of industry.

The Belgian miner seems, in most respects, to resemble his British brethren, improvident in his habits, and of a decidedly convivial disposition; taking part in "strikes" at the instigation of persons little his superior in point of education, he is apt to lead a life of alternate

luxury and misery. Certain superstitions prevalent among the mining classes in England find, I believe, no great foothold in Belgium.

I am assured that contract work as between master and man is comparatively rare, the exception being in the manufacture of small arms, which are furnished by men working at home. As a rule, labour is paid by the quarter-day of two hours, and there is neither contract nor apprenticeship, the workmen being dismissed or leaving at pleasure, an amount of freedom of which he is not slow to avail himself, and which discourages the master from taking any particular pains to teach his men, placing at the same time great difficulties in the way of the employer.

The higher class of workmen are, on the whole, better lodged than in England, and at rather less expense, inhabiting as a rule the upper portions of decent houses in the suburbs, of which the ground floor is devoted to business purposes. Their education is up to a certain point—class for class—better than in England, most of them being able to read and calculate correctly, and the greater part to write more or less; but in other matters they are much behind hand, and the ignorance of the female population is I fear very great.

Their seemingly utter indifference, and a false feeling of independence are the bane of its Belgian working classes, and indeed it would be hard to find a country in which indifference pervades all classes to such an extent. First-rate native work is hardly to be obtained. Ceiling plasterers come from the very frontiers of France, (the Walloon being, it is said, as a rule more energetic than the Fleming), if not from France. Painters and decorators from Holland, France and Germany, and it may be said that almost every new undertaking must be started by foreign money and enterprise.

The workman is not, however, solely to blame for the existence of this state of things, for so long as small incomes are the rule and wealth the exception, it may be doubted whether really well finished solid work would produce an adequate return; but even then there is generally a want of final touch which is often not creditable to the energies of the artizan.

In producing a cheap article the Belgian workman excels, as was noted at the Paris Exhibition, but cheap-

ness is attained in many cases at the expense of finish and solidity, and this appears to suit the present habits of purchasers. Were it otherwise there might be a fair opening for English artizans, but I understand all Englishmen of experience in the matter unite in stating that there is as yet no demand for such skilled labour as would enable an employer to remunerate a first class English hand, and on the wages of an ordinary workman the English artizan would simply starve, even if he succeeded in finding and keeping a situation. Occasionally a small capitalist may do well as an upholsterer, tailor, saddler, &c., and the like, but the risk is considerable, and the odds are much against him. It should also be mentioned that foreign hands are occasionally brought over here in order that their employer may acquire a knowledge as to certain methods of manipulation in his trade; the object attained, they are turned adrift without mercy.

No workman should, therefore, leave England without a written and formal agreement of the most stringent nature.

There is one institution from which both master and workman derive the greatest advantage which has yet to find a place in England, though I believe it is in full force in most continental countries,—the "Council of Prud'hommes," a recognized Tribunal consisting of equal numbers of employers and employed. All disputes between master and workmen whether as to quality of work or rate of wages are first submitted to a committee, which sits privately, to endeavour to settle the question amicably and at a nominal expense; failing this, the case is referred to the Council, which sits in public once a month, or oftener if required, and though the right of appeal exists to the regular courts, it is seldom resorted to, and for many years only two judgments have been reversed. It may also be mentioned that in the capital at least the rule does not prevail by which the master's oath settles the matter in discussion before the Council.

The present President (an Englishman), long resident in Belgium is greatly interested in the welfare of the working classes. He was one of the founders of a self-supporting restaurant on the same principle as those in London, Glasgow, and Liverpool. This institution works

well, and its utility may be guessed by the following schedule of the prices of provisions furnished by it :—

	Centimes.
Soup (1 litre)	10
Meat or fish	20
Vegetables	10
Beer (pint)	7
Bread	5
Coffee	5

With the exception of bread and beer these articles may be taken home by those who do not desire to consume them on the premises. Here again, however, the want of foresight of the workmen comes into play ; they are very willing to buy at the prices stated above, but, as a rule, will not take the 5 franc (4*s.*) shares offered for their acceptance.

Besides the system of Government annuities there exist in Belgium a large number of workmen's Friendly Aid Societies, for annuities, and for the purchase of provisions, of which 79 are recognized by the Government, and 76 submit their accounts, unofficially, to the Commissioners. But though many of these are trade associations, they have no political bearing; and I am assured that, except in the iron and coal districts, trades' unions have little or no influence.

Owing to a confusion of terms in the Census of 1855, it is difficult to arrive at the proportion of hands engaged in various trades, but masters and men were then estimated as follows :—

Engaged in—	
Agriculture	1,000,000
Manufactures	866,947
Commerce, wholesale and retail ..	156,803
Total population, 1855 ..	4,529,560
„ „ 1865 ..	4,800,000*

Roughly speaking, then, about two-fifths of the population are probably employed in manual labour.

In conclusion, and as a summary of the preceding, I think it may be safely set down that the inferior hand in all trades is, as a rule, unable to live on his wages; that he is badly fed and clothed, ill-housed, and that he

* Not published.

cares for little beyond his periodical orgies; faring, however, slightly better in the country than in the towns.

The superior workman gets fair wages, is decently fed, and well lodged, but not sufficiently so as to offer any temptation to English competition. His education is mostly indifferent, except in the matter of reading and arithmetic, the former being mostly gleaned from inferior newspapers, and the same want of precision and finish pervades his work.

(Signed) F. J. PAKENHAM.

No. 6.

Sir C. Murray to the Earl of Clarendon.—(Received December 29.)

My Lord, *Lisbon, December* 18, 1869.

I HAVE the honour to forward to your Lordship, herewith inclosed, a Report from Mr. Doria, the Secretary of Her Majesty's Legation, on the artizan and industrial classes of this country.

I have, &c.

(Signed) CH. A. MURRAY.

Inclosure 1 in No. 6.

Report by Mr. Doria on the Artizan and Industrial Classes in Portugal.

Lisbon, December 18, 1869.

To the Treaty of Commerce with England in the reign of Queen Anne, in 1803, some writers in Portugal attribute the decline and failure of her woollen manufactures. How far this assertion may be true it is foreign to the purpose to inquire, but the admission of English woollen goods was then established in exchange for the same privilege to admit the wines from Portugal on payment of differential duties, into England.

The protective duty of 30 per cent., levied by successive Treaties on woollen goods imported into Portugal,

together with the efforts and exertions of the famous Minister the Marquis Pombal in favour of the native manufactures, did not succeed in raising them at any time to any degree of commercial importance, nor does the protective system still pursued advance native industry in Portugal in any one instance to a position to be able to compete with foreign manufactures.

The statistics on industry in Portugal are very deficient, owing to the want of persons capable of making the necessary researches which such statistics require. The Kingdom is divided into seventeen districts, for three of which only some account of that nature has been published.

The information given with regard to the districts of Leiria and Coimbra is worthy of less reliance than that which was published last year on the district of Aveiro. From motives of economy, however, these inquiries have been interrupted, the Government not wishing to incur the expense requisite for their prosecution. I am led to suppose that political motives may also have had some weight in bringing them to a standstill owing to party feeling. It is to be regretted that works of public utility should be put a stop to on account of political opinions.

From the three works above mentioned I have drawn up the Table of the various classes of artizans and their number, in the three districts of Aveiro, Coimbra, and Leiria. Had the undertaking been carried out for the whole Kingdom more definite information might have been obtained, to arrive at some conclusion regarding the industrial classes.

It is true that the Custom-houses register the commercial facts of the most important character, and on their registers some reliance may be placed to arrive at many valuable calculations; but for facts connected with the industry of the country few registers are in existence, and these I am told are incomplete, and ill-arranged, while the information is collected without interest in the service, or attention, and set down at random merely to satisfy the official formality. These Returns are made by the Regedor of the parish, an authority who lends his services gratis, and is employed in various other offices. It is easy, therefore, to imagine in what manner he fulfils his official duties, and what reliance may be placed on the exactness of such statistical information.

Formerly, the relations between apprentices and their

masters were regulated by severe laws. The progress of liberal views in the country has done away with that system, in which much might, however, have been retained with advantage. At present no rules are in existence for regulating the relations between master and apprentice, nor is the latter obliged to pass an examination to satisfy his employer as to his requirements. In the absence of any laws some private establishments have adopted certain rules for the admission, promotion, and behaviour of apprentices.

In Lisbon the number of operatives may be calculated at about 7,000, who are employed in large manufactories. One of the largest, the property of a French man, employs about 700 men and women. The manufactures consist of woollen cloth and of shoes, of which the latter are exported principally to Brazil. The highest wages paid to the best weavers are about 2*s*. 6*d*. per day. The operatives live in poor houses in the neighbourhood. With regard to the generality of their houses throughout the capital, it may be said that they are poor and in bad state of repair, ill-constructed, and deficient in arrangement either for health or comfort. Mention should be made of the houses built by order of the Marquis Pombal for the silk weavers, which are an exception, being arranged with every regard for the health and convenience of the occupier. Some of these houses have been turned from their original use, and converted into private dwelling-houses, so that not more than accommodation for sixty families now remains. The houses are built round a large square in an elevated quarter of the city; the square is planted with mulberry-trees, and has a fountain with a plentiful supply of water in the centre. These houses were built in 1759, but I believe the original plan of the Marquis Pombal was not fully carried into execution.

In Oporto, I observed, that the weavers lived in separate houses, poor enough in condition, the loom occupying the room on the ground-floor; nor were the other industrial classes better lodged.

Trades Unions do not exist in Portugal, with the exception of a general subscription fund, from which the subscribers, in cases of disputes, receive assistance; this is the only society known to which the industrial classes belong.

The proprietor of the woollen and shoe manufactory,

previously mentioned, informed me, that during thirty years he had only three instances of his workmen combining in a "strike;" and on each occasion he easily satisfied their demands, and they returned to their work.

Strikes are of rare occurrence, and may be attributed to the fact, that there are no Trades Unions; added to which, the tractable and gentle character of the people, whose wants are easily supplied, the absence of the vice of drunkenness—a vice very rarely seen among them—and the nature of the climate also, free from any severity of cold, makes their wages sufficient to meet their daily wants. The absence of workmen on Mondays from their work is also a habit unknown among the operatives in Portugal; they attend as regularly on that day as they do throughout the week.

With reference to the question whether the markets present any openings for the introduction of labour from without, or the reverse, I may state, that the only openings offered for foreign labour, would be for the agriculturist. In the south of Portugal, where large extents of uncultivated land exist, the labourer, under arrangements to provide him on the outset with implements and the means of subsistence until fairly established, might realize a profitable existence, with very beneficial results also to the country. Recent experience has shown, that such speculation has been eminently successful in regard to native labour in reclaiming waste lands.

To meet the annual requirements of agriculture in the southern provinces, an influx of labour takes place every year from the north of Portugal. The labourer arrives in summer from his home in the north, to gain by his labour the money which is to serve for his maintenance during the winter, like the Irish peasant who crosses to England to work during harvest, and returns afterwards to his own country with the fruit of his labour.

For foreign workmen the market in Portugal offers no opening; when any demand does exist, it is for experienced hands, which is the most frequent in the case of French dyers and engineers from England.

With regard to the daily rate of wages, the amount is somewhat differently stated. One informant tells me,

that they vary from 10½*d.* to 3*s.* 6*d.* per day. The statement given by the Government on this point, vaguely calculates the wages of the industrial classes at from 10½*d.* to 5*s.* 4*d.* per day. In the absence of statistical returns, it is impossible to arrive at any reliable calculation.

The proportion which the number of the artizans and industrial classes bear to the other classes, is also a point on which no satisfactory information worthy of reliance can at present be procured. From the Table at the end of my Report, it may be seen that the approximative number of the industrial classes in the three districts of Aveiro, Coimbra, and Leiria, amounts to 75,296, including labourers; but the number of all the inhabitants not being known, no calculation regarding the proportion of the industrial classes to the entire population of the three districts can be arrived at. The figures of 186,684, given as the number of those classes for the whole population of the Kingdom, are evidently intended to include all the professional, as well as the artizan and industrial class, and has been taken from the register of the "Decima Industrial," on which no great reliance can be placed.

My appeal to the Portuguese Government for details and general information on the subject of this Report has, I may say, met with a very fruitless response; nevertheless, the Report is accompanied by the replies which I have received from the Department of Commerce and Industry, through the Foreign Office. To my special request to obtain, or be made acquainted with, some books of reference on the points in question, no reply has been returned. The Government, I am informed, from another source, is not in possession of the required knowledge; and it is to private sources of inquiry I owe the meagre amount of detail I have been able to collect.

(Signed) WM. DORIA.

Inclosure 2 in No. 6.

TABLE showing the Classification and Number of Artizans and Workmen of the different Trades in the three Districts of Aveiro, Coimbra, and Leiria.

	Aveiro.		Coimbra.		Leiria.		Total.
	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	
Officers that stamp weights and measures	16	..	..	..	..	..	16
Pack-saddlers	4	..	5	..	20	..	29
Tailors	632	..	826	..	314	..	1,772
Bonnet-makers	..	155	..	..	..	2	157
Barbers	111	..	139	..	168	..	418
Hairdressers	3	..	..	..	..	..	3
Caulkers	82	..	6	..	8	..	96
Coppersmiths	11	..	9	..	13	..	33
Basket-makers	232	..	107	..	6	..	335
Stonemasons	2	..	16	..	32	..	50
Overseers of miners	12	..	..	..	..	..	12
Carders	2	24	97	..	441	..	564
Carpenters	1,222	..	1,004	..	707	..	2,933
Gilders	5	..	1	..	10	..	16
Wax-chandlers	18	..	10	..	8	..	36
Hatters	433	..	3	..	5	..	441
Rope-makers	79	6	17	..	1	..	103
Saddlers	3	..	7	..	2	..	12
Seamstresses	..	381	..	317	..	50	748
Bookbinders	3	..	..	..	..	..	3
Carvers	3	..	..	..	..	..	3
Bowl-makers	8	..	..	..	..	..	..
Dross-pickers	..	82	..	..	..	..	82
Rag-pickers	..	116	..	..	..	..	116
Sculptors	2	..	..	..	..	..	2
Gunsmiths	8	..	5	..	..	..	13
Mat-makers	13	..	..	..	5	..	18
Tar-workers	20	..	..	..	10	..	30
Lime-burners	150	..	66	..	..	..	216
Umbrella-makers	1	..	..	..	..	..	1
Tanners	19	..	9	..	15	..	43
Potters	149	..	60	60	..	..	269
Match-makers	9	..	..	..	2	..	11
Paper-makers	197	..	66	104	..	..	367
China manufacturers / Glass-blowers	105	..	57	8	165	18	353
Soap-makers	6	..	..	..	..	..	6
Tiles and bricks	332	..	74	..	..	..	406
Tallow-chandlers	1	..	1	1	..	..	3
Blacksmiths	67	..	67	..	62	..	196
Miners	496	..	..	..	..	..	496
Smiths	446	..	295	..	285	..	1,026
Firework-makers	25	..	16	23	32	..	96
Last-makers	4	..	..	..	4	..	8
Moulders	1	..	..	..	..	..	1
Smelters	4	..	2	..	..	..	6
Tinmen	11	..	15	..	8	..	34
Ploughmen	20,850	..	4,487	..	..	..	25,337

	Aveiro.		Coimbra.		Leiria.		Total.
	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	
Cabinet-makers	17	..	40	..	6	..	63
Thread-makers	..	4	..	11	..	5	20
Overseers of—							
Weavers	1	..	..	..	..	..	..
Makers of China	1	..	12	..	4	..	16
,, Glass	1	..					
Workmen	9	..	..	..	4	..	13
Painters on china	1	..	..	..	..	..	1
Millers	1,273	..	1,101	..	..	..	2,374
Cotton-weavers	35	40	..	..	..	..	75
Goldsmiths	18	..	..	..	4	..	22
Bricklayers	652	..	940	..	479	..	2,061
Sieve-makers	1	..	6	..	2	..	9
Comb-makers	3	..	..	..	..	..	3
Painters	8	..	9	..	6	..	23
Ditto on china	18	..	..	..	..	..	18
Fullers	21	..	24	..	..	..	45
Well-diggers	58	..	..	..	..	..	58
Polishers of China	..	18	..	..	..	..	18
Watchmakers	4	..	..	..	2	..	6
Shoemakers	265	..	779	..	669	..	1,713
Tassel-makers	2	..	..	..	..	..	2
Sawyers	319	..	103	..	373	..	795
Locksmiths	9	..	144	..	38	..	191
Curriers	9	..	4	..	..	..	13
Wooden-shoemakers	100	..	11	..	1	..	112
Coopers	116	..	22	..	29	..	167
Weavers	..	1,832	..	3,140	344	622	5,938
Dyers	1	..	24	..	3	..	28
Labourers	8,499	..	2,186	..	10,410	3,521	24,616
Printers	5	..	..	..	..	..	5
Washerwomen	..	59	..	..	..	..	59
Turners	..	..	5	..	4	..	9
Bakers	51	250	..	..	263	..	564
Block-makers	..	..	11	..	..	..	11
Toothpick-makers	..	..	80	100	..	..	180
Glove-makers	..	..	2	1	..	..	3
Quarrymen	..	..	..	..	19	..	19
							75,296

(Signed) WM. DORIA.

Inclosure 3 in No. 6.

Replies by Portuguese Department of Commerce and Industry respecting Industrial Classes.

Q. 1. What is the proportion of the artizan and industrial classes to the other classes?—A. The legal population, according to the census made on the 1st of January, 1864, is 4,288,995 inhabitants. A census

is being drawn up classifying the different professions in towns of more than 2,000 inhabitants. As soon as this work is completed the result shall be notified. In the industrial quotas the number is stated to be 186,684.

Q. 2. What is the description of houses or lodgings generally occupied by them?—A. This query leads one to suppose that it is imagined that there is a highly industrial town with districts specially inhabited by artizans. But such a thing does not exist in any city in this country. The artizan classes live in small houses spread through the different districts of the towns. The mode of building in our cities, where the artizan and industrial classes are more numerous, renders their condition less unfavourable on this point than in other cities in Europe, where a complete distinction exists in the districts for the industrial classes, and in the districts where the houses are built in such a manner as not to be available for any but the industrial classes.

Q. 3. What is the nature of their engagements with their employers?—A. Their engagements are entered into without any restrictions whatsoever. Legislation does not enact any restrictions.

Q. 4. What are the rates of wages received by them?—A. They vary so much that this query can hardly be answered; more especially as no particular profession is mentioned. Wages vary from month to month in every town and in every profession. In Lisbon and Oporto, the principal cities in the Kingdom, the wages of the industrial classes range from 200 reis ($10\frac{1}{2}d.$), which is the minimum, to 1,200 reis ($5s.\ 4d.$), which is the maximum.

Q. 5. What is the state of the labour markets?—A. This query is so vague that its meaning can hardly be understood.

Q. 6. Do the latter present any openings for the introduction of labour from without or the reverse?—A. Foreigners can freely exercise any industry in Portugal, like the natives, and chiefly in the cities of Lisbon and Oporto different kinds of industry are exercised by foreigners.

Q. 7. What books, publications, or documents are there for reference upon this matter?—A. A few

elementary publications have been made with the view of protecting the interests of the industrial classes, part of which have been printed on account of the "Associação Promotora da Industria Fabril" (Society for the Promotion of Manufactures); there are also a few periodical publications which treat of these matters. For the purpose of promoting the instruction of the industrial classes, there are two Industrial Academies ("Institutos") one in Lisbon and another at Oporto, both in accordance with the regulations contained in the Decree of the 20th December, 1864.

(Signed) J. P. DE FARIA E LACERDA.

Department of Commerce and Industry,
November 23, 1869.

No. 7.

Mr. Jerningham to the Earl of Clarendon.—(*Received January* 6, 1870.)

My Lord, *Stockholm, December* 31, 1869.

With reference to your Lordship's Circular despatches of the 30th of April last and of the 22nd ultimo, I have the honour to transmit a Report on the position of the industrial classes in Sweden, which has been drawn up by Mr. Jocelyn, Secretary of Her Majesty's Legation.

I have, &c.

(Signed) G. S. S. JERNINGHAM.

Inclosure in No. 7.

Report by Mr. Jocelyn upon the State of the Working Classes in Sweden.

Stockholm, December 29, 1869.

The present Report will comprise information, as accurate as can be obtained, upon the following subjects:—

1. The proportion of the working and industrial classes to the population and to each other.

2. The general mode of living of the workmen and artizans.

3. The nature of their engagements with their employers.

4. The rates of wages, and allowances.

The last general census of Sweden was taken in the year 1860, when the total population amounted to 3,859,728 persons.

The Table A will give an idea of the proportion which then existed of the industrial, professional, and working classes to the whole population, and to one another.

The total number of persons employed appears, from this official return, to have numbered 1,036,997, or a little below 27 per cent. of the whole population of the country.

In the Table, Class I includes labourers, those farming their own land and that of others, land agents, bailiffs, and their clerks, and all employed in their offices, gardeners and their apprentices, foresters of every description, and, in short, every person in any way connected with the culture of the soil and its products. It includes, likewise, timber fellers, carpenters, colliers, cattle herds, dairymen, persons engaged in breeding horses, and finally fishermen.

Class II consists of miners (not colliers), and smelters of ore. Manufacturers and artizans, properly so called, builders, architects, masons, and house carpenters, engineers, apothecaries, and skilled workmen of all trades whose employment is not specified in the Return.

Class III includes merchants of every denomination, brokers, commission and ship agents, hotel and public-house keepers, with their servants.

Class IV comprises seamen, pilots, canal and harbour officers, fire brigade, and bridgemen, all those employed in railway, Post-office or telegraph service, and all connected with the transport of passengers and goods by land.

Class V. All servants not included in Classes III and VI.

Class VI. Physicians, surgeons, and veterinary surgeons, midwives, nurses in hospitals, keepers of baths and mineral water establishments.

Class VII. Teachers and those employed in institu-

tions for the promotion of science and art, universities and schools, writers and authors, transcribers, and copyists, not included in other classes, and not otherwise employed, professional artists in painting, sculpture, and music.

Class VIII. The Lutheran and Evangelical clergy, the clergy of other religious denominations, church officials, having no other employment.

Class IX. Civil officers and servants of the Crown, and persons in their official employment, lawyers, and all engaged in the administration of justice.

Class X. The Army and Navy.—It will be evident at a glance that the classes engaged in agriculture and the employments connected with it, under Class I far outnumber all others.

The manufacturing and artizan population, as mentioned in Class II, amounts to 100,165 persons—but a considerable reduction in this number must doubtless be allowed for including, as it does, many who can scarcely be said to be actual artizans.

I have received a Statement of the number of these —to be given in the Returns for 1868—which are not yet made public, and which I subjoin.

The number of workmen engaged in different manufactures not belonging to former guilds or Corporations, was, in 1868		30,242
The number of artizans or handcrafts-men formerly belonging to guilds, was, in the same year:—		
In towns	9,005	
In rural districts	7,053	
And their workmen:—		
In towns	14,532	
In rural districts	5,722	
		36,312
The number of workmen employed in mining and metallurgic operations, was, in the same year		24,144
This gives a grand total of		90,698

This number would, however, scarcely include manufacturers of articles of personal use, and of wearing apparel, who appear nevertheless to be comprised in the general Return for 1860, which I have quoted above.

The manufactuting and artizan classes may, there-

fore, be safely estimated at a little below 3 per cent. of the entire population of Sweden.

With regard to the dwellings and mode of livings of the industrial classes in Sweden, much difference prevails.

In the north, where timber abounds, the agricultural farmer who has settled in a district, and who owns part of the adjoining primeval forest, will cut down whatever wood he requires for his houses, of which he often has several, and for his barns and cattle-sheds.

These are then strongly run up either by himself or by hired carpenters, and, while the dwelling-houses are inhabited during the summer months by himself and his family, it is not unusual for them to be closed during the long winter, and for him to betake himself to the large cattle-sheds, where the necessity of keeping up fires to cook the food for the cattle induces the peasant to partition off a dwelling-place.

The barns and sheds are substantially built, and such an arrangement is productive of a great saving in fuel, and, during deep snow and bad weather, of many other advantages.

In the southern districts, where wood is comparatively scarce, as in Skania, the peasant was, until lately, compelled to build his house of a framework of timber—and to fill this in with clay—a labour in which he was assisted by his friends and neighbours who were called together for the purpose, he, of course, rendering the same service to them when required. Of late years, however, bricks have been introduced in many places and are now used instead of clay.

Almost every mine, smelting-house, or factory of any size in the rural districts, has houses specially built as dwellings for the workmen. These are usually the property of the heads of the establishment.

The traveller in these districts is agreeably surprised by the neat little cottages he sees, each with its garden and piece of ground for the cultivation of vegetables. These cottages are built of wood and generally lodge one or two families. Such an arrangement has been found preferable to having large barrack-like houses accommodating many persons in a small space, both on moral and sanitary grounds.

As an instance, in point, one of the workmen's houses

built at Nankoping may be cited. This is one of the largest manufacturing towns in Sweden, and here detached cottages would be too expensive to build.

The house in question consists of a basement and first-floor besides an attic. It contains twenty-four lodgings for married workmen. Each of these comprises one fair sized room, and a still larger kitchen, besides a spare room, while spacious cellars serve to keep fuel and provisions. These twenty-four lodgings are separated in such a manner that only two possess the same entrance door—one being on the ground floor and the other on that above.

The attics contain four large rooms for unmarried workmen, and a reading-room and ante-room. The court in front of the house is divided into allotments for the cultivation of flowers.

Two adjoining houses are set apart for the bakery and other offices.

The library or reading-room contains many sources of information; instructive books, newspapers, and geographical maps.

A great inducement to a workman to practice thriftiness and perseverance is the hope of one day becoming the actual possessor of the house in which he lives, as well as of the small plot of ground attached to it, which he may leave to his children at his death.

Many of the proprietors of mines make use of this prospect to cultivate in the minds of their dependents such desirable qualities, and the Company of the mines of Fahleur and that of the Gefle manufactory pursue this system.

Part of the labourers' houses built by the Fahleur Company are let at a cheap rate to their workmen, while the rest are the *bonâ fide* property of their occupiers, who have purchased them by easy instalments allowed them by the Company.

Those at Gefle, which possess, in addition, a piece of land, are sold to the workmen at cost price, varying from 110*l.* to 170*l.* a piece. A part of the price is paid at certain periods, so fixed as to be as accommodating as possible to the purchaser, while the remainder is mortgaged upon the property sold. Savings' banks have been established to facilitate this arrangement, where the younger workmen place their weekly savings in hope of,

at no very distant period, becoming the possessors of their homes.

Gothenburg is, however, the town in Sweden where most pains have been taken, and most capital expended in providing comfortable lodgings for the working classes.

The commune of the town has at two different periods subscribed a fund for this purpose. A capital of about 4,000*l.* was obtained, and a guarantee of 5 per cent. granted by them, as well as building land. Ten wooden houses were constructed of one story only, costing nearly 3,000*l.*, and containing seven sets of lodgings of two rooms and a kitchen; twenty-six of one room and kitchen; and fourteen of single rooms furnished with an economical stove.

The rent of these lodgings varies from 5*s.* to 12*s.* 7*d.* per month, according to accommodation. The revenue of the whole reaches about 230*l.* per annum. They are inhabited by 118 persons, besides 38 children under twelve.

The condition of these inmates may be understood from the fact of their paying insurance upon 1,561*l.* worth of moveable property in their rooms.

Two years later a further grant of land was made, upon which were built two large houses of two stories, at a cost of 2,100*l.*, and containing sixteen lodgings of one room and kitchen, and twenty-four of single rooms with economical stoves. The rents paid are from 7*s.* to 10*s.* per month, and the houses accommodate 120 persons.

Mr. Robert Dickson made a donation for the same purpose in 1857 of upwards of 18,000*l.*, which has enabled the town of Gothenburg to build six wooden and eight brick houses, containing 435 persons, including 185 non-working children.

The rent paid for the very comfortable lodgings provided by the Dickson Fund, average 12*s.* or 14*s.* per month, and moveable property insured in them amounts to nearly 5,000*l.*

Such, then, are the dwellings of skilled workmen in Gothenburg, and in other towns where the lodging-house system exists, throughout Sweden. The second class and ordinary workmen of Stockholm inhabit houses of a humbler sort, several sometimes sharing one room and

kitchen, and, if not married, obtaining their daily food at the numerous eating-houses in the town.

In some of the larger towns it is not unusual for workmen to pursue their trades at home, at least, such as do not require instruments too bulky to occupy their small room.

Watchmakers and artizans in Stockholm, whose work is of a delicate description, often prefer their own houses to the general workshop. Such work is of course paid by the piece and not by time.

In a country lying between such widely separated parallels of latitude as Sweden, the mode of living of the industrial population must of necessity differ greatly in the southern provinces from that which prevails in the far north, articles of food and consumption changing their character according to the requirements of the climate, and the productive power of the soil.

Thus, in Skania, and the districts of Calmar, Gothenburg, and Bohas, the agricultural population subsist chiefly upon potatoes, rye, oats, and barley; beans and peas being also cultivated upon the north seaboard. Salt herrings are much used, but meat is seldom seen, and then consists of smoked pork, as the farmers are generally breeders of pigs.

Oatmeal cakes are baked, and the other food being wrapped up in them, the whole forms a tolerably palatable meal.

In the far north, however, this is modified. For there barley is the only cereal available, everything else having to be transported thither. Potatoes are grown, and saltfish is stored up for winter consumption.

One article of food, moreover, is to be found everywhere, and in many districts in great abundance; this is milk, which forms a wholesome substitute for meat, and becomes a universal source of nutriment when converted into cheese.

The above remarks apply equally to the mining population, who, with the smelters of ore, are generally lodged by their employers, and receive a large proportion of their wages in the shape of the necessaries of life.

These are supplied to them at prices which have been previously agreed upon, and any considerable fluctuations in their market value are equalized by a relative increase or diminution of wages paid to the men.

The house-rents paid in Stockholm by artizans and workpeople average from 6*l.* to 14*l.* per annum, according to their means and the requirements of their families. The higher sums are paid for the rooms and a kitchen, generally occupied by skilled workmen who can earn 90*l.* or 100*l.* a-year.

The ordinary class of men, generally single, whose earnings do not surpass 50*l.* or 60*l.* per annum, content themselves with one room and a kitchen, or even with one room alone.

The cost of their food, clothing, and other necessaries may, perhaps, be double that of lodgings, so that an industrious and careful man may always save one-third of his year's wages.

The food of the Stockholm workmen is, of course, of a superior description to that of the country labourer or miner.

Meat, vegetables, and bread, are to be had at a tolerably cheap rate in the eating-houses which they frequent; and although prices have experienced a considerable rise of late, the artizan may be said to live comfortably.

Spirits are pretty largely consumed by this class, but not to the same extent as formerly, when the duty levied upon alcohol was very much lower than it is at present.

Engagements between Masters and Workmen.

The following stipulations are generally in force throughout the country.

The master shall make an agreement with his workmen in presence of witnesses.

In the agreement the conditions of service shall be stated—also the term, which is not to exceed three years, and, in general, averages from a fortnight to six months.

The master exercises a kind of paternal authority over his workmen, according to law, unless the agreement should provide otherwise.

No workmen can be taken under 12 years of age.

Those under 18 may not be held to work during the night between the hours of 9 P.M. and 5 A.M.

The master is also bound to see that his men, especially when miners, attend divine worship and behave themselves in an orderly manner.

He must also take care that those in his employment who do not possess the minimum of knowledge, prescribed by law, may obtain the education they require at certain times to be determined by him, and that they shall attend Sunday schools, and technical schools if there be such in the neighbourhood.

The master is further to treat and occupy his workmen with due regard to their health and constitutions.

Should workmen be engaged as regular servants or farm labourers [their service then being by the year], they cannot be discharged except for criminal or very serious offence oftener than once a year, viz., on the 24th of October, after two months' warning.

In Stockholm, however, it is customary to discharge servants on the 24th of April as well.

Annexed is the law of 18th June, 1864, which is the most recent Act of Legislation affecting trades and workmen, and which modifies and in part abrogates the provisions of the law of 1846.

In some of the manufacturing establishments in Stockholm, no special agreements are made between the masters and workmen, the plan in these cases being to pay the men by the day or hour, and to allow them to leave when they please.

The usual course, however, appears to be to enter into an agreement, legally binding, for six months, any breach of which on either side is punishable in a Court of Law, by fine or imprisonment.

At an extensive manufactory of cotton goods near Stockholm, verbal promises are exacted from the workers on their entering the establishment, to keep to the regulations of the place, or to be dismissed.

At a large ship-building yard in the neighbourhood a fortnight's warning is given and required, this term of service being also generally exacted in the smaller workshops of the capital.

The day's work is considered to cover thirteen hours from 6 A.M. to 8 P.M., or from 5 A.M. to 7 P.M., these latter in the case of smiths and rough workers in metal, one hour being allowed in the middle of the day for dinner.

Before closing this part of the Report it will be necessary to say a few words as to the "torpare" and "statfolk," two classes of agricultural labourers whose terms of engagement are very characteristic.

The institution of the "torpare" is peculiar to Sweden and may be considered as the pioneer of cultivation in a country where a great portion of the soil is still in its primeval condition.

In order that large proprietors may be enabled to count upon a certain number of workmen every year sufficient to till their ground, they make use of a portion of land hitherto uncultivated, whereupon to establish small farms called "torp."

A "torp" consists of a space of ground more or less extensive, upon which the proprietor has raised the necessary buildings, and which, under certain conditions, and terms is allotted for the use of a workman "torpare," who, in consideration of this, and without further wages, is bound to work for a certain number of days per week on the property of the master, in proportion to the greater or less value of his "torp," most frequently one to three days per week.

Besides this, he is often bound to execute other service, such as manufacturing carts, spinning a certain quantity of flax, cleaving wood, and other duties depending upon the district and its customs.

The proprietor on his side is bound to keep the "torp" in good repair, furnish the tenant with fuel and pasturage for cattle, and allow him the use of his beasts of draught, in case he possesses none of his own.

This class of farmer generally spends his life in his "torp" and it not unfrequently happens that when infirmity or old age overtakes him, his son is allowed to succeed him in possession and cultivation of the farm.

The position of the "torpare" is decidedly advantageous both to himself and to his employer, and it may be safely asserted that the best of relations prevail between them throughout the country.

The "stat folk" are the other great class of agricultural workmen.

They receive from their masters lodging, wood for fuel, and annual wages. In lieu of food, they receive a fixed quantity of cereals, malt, lard, and salt herrings,

and other provisions which enable them to keep house and to maintain their families if married.

They are engaged by the year, a certain time being determined within which notice must be given for the termination of the agreement on either side. Besides the above-named provisions, a small plot of ground is usually granted to each man for the cultivation of potatoes, and, if married, his wife and children are often able to increase the man's pay by earning fair wages during the harvest and seed time.

The situation of these labourers is of course more precarious than that of the "torpare," and the usual price paid, inclusive of the value of provisions allowed, will vary from 14*l.* 10*s.* to 20*l.* per annum in the case of men, and about 9*l.* in the case of women.

The above wages are given in a Tabular Form in the two last columns of Table C.

Wages of the Industrial Classes.

Agricultural labourers throughout Sweden receive on an average from 7*d.* to 1*s.* 5*d.* per diem, but in the case of those who are hired for the harvest season only, or for a very short period, the wages are generally paid by the amount of work done, and an industrious man can thus earn as much as 2*s.* 4*d.* on a long summer's day.

In the case of labourers hired by the year, as has been already stated, the wages are increased by the practice which prevails of lodging and maintaining the farm servants.

In the northern provinces, and in Lapland, this is always done. Board and lodging being expected as a remuneration for labour besides daily wages.

A Table (C) is annexed, which will show the proportion which exists between this class and that which does not receive board and lodging, for each province of the Kingdom,—as well as the average of their pay by the day and by the year.

In many manufacturing establishments where

skilled labour is employed the same system prevails, and in Stockholm it is not unusual to grant one room and a kitchen to each workman of the higher class if married, and if not from 3*l.* to 6*l.* are allowed him to enable him to hire lodgings.

Respecting the wages paid to miners and rough workers in iron, no official Returns exist, but the usual plan pursued appears to be the following:—

Either by the day or by the length of passage excavated in a certain time, due regard being had to the hardness of the rock worked. The pay for the day of twelve hours varies between 11*d.* and 1*s.* 3*d.*, according to the skill of the workman.

In the mines of Danemora and those in the Kopparberg district, where it is usual to pay miners and smelters of ore either by the cubic measure of ore extracted or by the amount smelted, the wages vary from 9½*d.* to 1*s.* 3*d.* per four feet of passage cut, the ore being carried to the bottom of the shaft, or from 3*s.* 9*d.* to 4*s.* 7*d.* per ton of ore extracted and brought up to bank.

Powder for blasting and the necessary repairs of tools are provided by the proprietor for the labourer by the day, but when working by the peace, the expenses are borne by the men themselves.

Women and children who never work below ground are employed in roasting and fining the ore at wages of 10*d.* to 1*s.* 1*d.* per ton.

Among the charcoal burners where wood is carbonized for the smelting of ore, it is usual to pay 3*l.* 10*s.* for each "mould" of wood converted, consisting of from twelve to thirteen tons of charcoal, or about 5*s.* 6*d.* per ton, including the cutting and stacking.

The wages received average about 1*s.* 6*d.* per day of 24 hours; the wood-cutters getting 10*d.* or 1*s.* 3*d.*, according to the season.

Some iron-masters possess forests and employ peasants to make the charcoal, paying them in natural productions, and supplying them with house and field, in return for which so many days of labour are exacted during the month.

The wages paid to the general class of workmen and artizans vary with each district, but those paid in Stockholm may be taken as fairly representing the

highest given in Sweden, those at Gothenburg, Norköping, and other manufacturing centres, falling slightly below them.

At a large cotton-goods factory in Stockholm the workers are all paid by piece-work, except a few ordinary men who get $1\frac{3}{4}d.$ per hour.

In this establishment no board is provided, lodgings are given to the foremen and clerks, ordinary workers having to lodge themselves.

Wages in this class of business are about 10 per cent. lower in other parts of Sweden, except at Gothenburg.

In a manufactory of iron stoves and kitchen ranges, the skilled workmen get from $2\frac{1}{2}d.$ to $3d.$ per hour, while ordinary men receive $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ to $1\frac{3}{4}d.$

The first class workmen are lodged in comfortable cottages built by the proprietor, and let at a rent of from $3l.$ to $8l.$ per annum. The accommodation consists of a kitchen and one room, and in cases of married couples of two rooms.

No board is provided for any of the workmen.

At a ship-building yard, mechanical workmen, such as turners, filers, carpenters, receive from $3d.$ to $4d.$ per hour, and inferior ones from $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ to $2\frac{3}{4}d.$

The time of labour per diem is in winter 7 hours, in summer 11.

There is a steam flour-mill in the capital employing a large number of hands, where the wages paid average $2s.$ $5d.$ per day, and an allowance of $1l.$ $7s.$ per month is made in addition to their pay to the higher class of workmen as board wages. The head clerks and foremen and a few of the upper hands receive lodgings free in the mill.

Time of labour is fourteen hours. Any extra work performed is paid at the same rate.

The manufactory at Jönköping, about 250 miles to the south-west of Stockholm, of patent safety lucifer matches, is one of the largest establishments in Sweden, and gives employment to 650 persons, mostly women and children. These are paid generally by the amount of work done, and clever hands can earn as much as $3s.$ $4d.$ per day, and scarcely any less than $1s.$ $2d.$

Those who work by the day of thirteen hours receive from $9d.$ to $1s.$ $5d.$

All workers lodge and board themselves, and all tools are provided by the factory.

A Table is annexed which will show at a glance the amount of wages paid at Stockholm in the case of the most ordinary trades and manufactures which are there carried on.

One column will give the wages which are paid in other parts of the country, when any considerable difference exists between them and those usual at Stockholm.

The following information was obtained too late for insertion in the body of the Report.

Rate of Wages, &c., in the District of Gefleborg.

At the Sandvik Works, the skilled smiths, rollers, and smelters, are paid from 2*s.* 3*d.* to 3*s.* 4*d.* per day of eleven to twelve hours. Smiths and rollers are generally employed by piece-work, when they earn more.

Less skilled are paid from 1*s.* 7*d.* to 2*s.* 3*d.* for the same time.

All these have lodging free, but no board, and have the same pay summer and winter.

Extra workmen are paid 1*s.* 7*d.* to 2*s.* 3*d.* in summer, and 1*s.* 2*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* per day in winter; and are not lodged.

The men have no fixed holidays, but leave of absence for their private affairs is generally granted.

The usual time of work is from 6 A.M. to 7 P.M., with the accustomed time for meals. A great part of the work is carried on by gangs, who relieve each other during the twenty-four hours.

Only the foremen have an agreement by the year. The rest can be dismissed, or leave their work when they please.

No warning is given before leaving or dismissal.

Eskilstuna.—Skilled workmen are paid from 2*d.* to 4*d.* per hour; the day's work being of twelve hours' duration.

Less skilled, get 1*d.* to 1½*d.* per hour, and no difference is made between summer and winter.

A part of the skilled workmen are lodged and boarded; but in such cases the pay is by the week, and is considerably reduced.

The usual holidays are allowed, but in the case of weekly workmen, fifty weeks' labour are exacted in the year.

This class alone have any agreement, the other being perfectly free to go when they please. Any breach of contract is punished by the police magistrate.

The above rates of wages are about 10 per cent. lower than at Stockholm.

District of Westmarland.

Arboga.—Iron-Works.—Wages of the most skilled workmen vary from 2*s.* to 2*s.* 4*d.* per day of eleven hours. Free lodging is given, together with out-houses and cellars, about 54 cubic feet of wood for firing, and a plot of ground large enough to plant 4½ bushels of potatoes.

Besides these advantages, the workman has free medical attendance and medicine, and 7*d.* per day when unable to work from sickness.

In case of death the wife receives 1*l.* 8*s.* towards the funeral expenses: and should she die, the husband is paid 9*s.*; and on the death of a child, 7*s.* for the same purpose.

Less skilled workmen have 1*s.* 9*d.* per day, with the same advantages as the former class.

Helpers receive 1*s.* 5*d.* a-day, 1*l.* 8*s.* towards paying rent for lodgings, 18*s.* for firewood, and the same privileges as to medical attendance as the first-class.

None of the workmen are boarded by the masters.

The usual holidays are allowed, which include the fair-days at the different towns of the district.

All agreements are entered into verbally; and it is usual for the workman to give three months' warning. Disorderly or inefficient workers are summarily dismissed.

Norköping.—Cotton-Spinning and Weaving.—The

manufactory produces unbleached, bleached, and dyed goods, for home consumption.

The wages in the spinning department are—

	Per Day.			
	s.	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*
Foremen	1	10 to	2	3
Other workmen	1	2	1	5
Head spinning girls	0	10	1	1
Throstle hands	0	8	0	9
Boys, from 12 to 14 years old . ..	0	7	0	8
Warpers	0	10	1	0

Cotton-weaving department—

Foreman	2	4	2	11
Apprentices	1	2	1	8
Female warpers	0	10	1	2

Bleaching and dyeing department—

Men	1	2	1	8
Women	0	5	0	7

Wages are alike in winter and summer. The day is reckoned at twelve hours, exclusive of rest.

No board or lodging is given.

No engagements or obligations to give warning exist.

Another Factory at Norköping.—The workmen's wages vary from 2*s.* 9*d.* to 1*s.* 2*d.* per day of eleven hours. They are the same summer and winter.

Inexperienced hands, women, and children, receive from 1*s.* 6*d.* to 11*d.* per day. All male workers have lodgings supplied to them, or a certain sum is allowed them on that account.

Board is in no case supplied.

Agreements are made for two months. Any workman breaking his agreement may be arrested by the police and restored to the master of the factory should he desire it.

Gothenburg.—Mechanical-Work Factory.—The most skilled workmen receive for winter and summer alike—from 2*s.* 11*d.* to 3*s.* 6*d.* per day; less skilled, from 1*s.* 8*d.* to 2*s.* A certain number of hands are employed by the piece, when they are enabled to earn 25 per cent. more than by day-wages.

The foremen of the works alone are lodged, and no one is boarded.

The usual time of work is from 5·30 A.M. to 7 P.M., including meal hours.

No contracts exist; and hands are free to leave when they like.

From this will be seen that wages for skilled labour are higher in Gothenburg than in any other town in Sweden. The manufactures are almost all consumed in the country.

A few words may be said, in conclusion, upon the establishment of Trades Unions and Associations of Workmen in Sweden.

Workmen's societies for mutual aid in case of illness, and for funeral expenses, have long existed in all the large manufacturing towns of Sweden, but such associations as we understand by Trades Unions in England have only recently been formed, and to a limited extent.

In 1865 there appeared at Stockholm a "Society for the Propagation of Unions among the Working Classes," and by means of publications explaining the details of the system advocated, it succeeded in obtaining favourable responses from some of the large towns, such as Norköping and Gothenburg.

One of the most difficult species of Trades Unions to form and maintain is just the one which appears to have been the most successful in Sweden, viz., the "Associations for Production," and in many parts of the country, workmen will unite to produce for their common welfare certain articles of manufacture and industry.

This circumstance is to be traced to the Swedish character. The workman values his independence, and will risk willingly his savings, or even all he possesses, when united to the capital of other workmen, and he eagerly seizes upon the opportunity which is offered him of leaving his dependent position for one which, though precarious, enables him to enjoy (with the freedom of a co-operator in an enterprise) the same rights as others who have embarked in it.

This system naturally works best upon a small scale, for where many are associated upon an equal footing, for the promotion of manufactures requiring unusual skill, there is great danger of the whole becoming *de facto* the property of a few of the original founders,

while the rest sink back into the condition of simple workmen under their command. There is a great tendency in the men to form their Unions, especially when promoting some common acquisition of tools or other materials, upon the system of shareholders.

A Union has recently been established at Norköping for the supply of food and articles of consumption to workmen, based upon an issue of 5,000 shares of 10*s.* 10*d.* each, and ten workmen who have established a mechanical factory near Gothenburg have formed for the purpose a company of shareholders, each contributing 29*l.* towards the undertaking.

Other Workmen's Associations exist, having for their object the intellectual development of their members, and they have been enabled to institute lectures on various subjects of interest, and to purchase books and means of information, as well as to provide liberally for the amusement and entertainment of their fellow-workmen.

In Stockholm alone in the year 1864 there were the following Workmen's Societies in action :—

"Society for Mutual Succour," comprising 1,500 members; that of "Concord and Liberty," with 1,100 for help for the sick, and 700 subscribers towards funeral expenses of members. The "United Brethren," numbering 1,200 for the first, and 480 for the second object.

Besides these there are many other in course of formation.

At Gothenburg there exists an extensive "Workmen's Association," which in 1867 consisted of over 2,000 members, and it is intended without delay to institute an association for articles of consumption on the principle already explained, the articles in question being bought at wholesale prices, and resold to members considerably below the actual market value. Large loans on this account have already been subscribed for.

All these societies are, however, thrown into the shade by that established at Norköping, the most purely manufacturing town of Sweden.

The "Workmen's Association" is better organized and more developed than any other. It consisted in 1867 of 1,519 members, and in seven years had assisted those who were suffering from sickness to the extent of

900*l.*, and had defrayed funeral expenses to the amount of 200*l.* It possesses a house of its own, built at a cost of 4,500*l.*, the plans drawn, and the edifice constructed by members only.

More than one-third of the capital borrowed has already been paid off, and the remainder is exclusively in the hands of shareholding members.

In addition to this, a "Society of Production" has been established by the Association upon the principles already explained, and also one for articles of consumption, besides a library and a theatre for the use of the members—facts which speak for themselves as to the degree of development attained by this prosperous community.

But little remains to be said as to a labour market in Sweden. From what has gone before, it will have been seen how moderate are the wages paid for all kinds of work, except that displaying the highest degree of skill.

This fact, when taken in connection with the certainty that almost all manufactured articles produced in Sweden are also consumed there, a very inconsiderable portion finding their way into foreign markets, forbids us to expect that the introduction of labour from without, especially from Great Britain, would be attended with beneficial results.

The supply scarcely equals the demand, which can only be satisfied by large imports from abroad, while the constant and but slightly diminished flow of emigration is a further confirmation of the opinion already expressed.

This continued expatriation may be attributed in a great degree to the long duration of the Swedish winter. The farmer sees the fruits of his industry nipped in the bud, the later spring frosts frequently carrying off the best part of his summer crop.

This severity of the climate, combined with the peculiar character of the Swedish people, may constitute difficulties in the way; but hitherto, at least, whatever the cause, foreign enterprise attempted to be carried out by foreign labour alone, has not met with that degree of success in Sweden which has attended it in other parts of the Continent of Europe.

(Signed) NASSAU JOCELYN.

Table (A).—Industrial Population.

Employment.	Country.			Towns.			Sum total.
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	
I. Agriculture ...	506,229	153,785	660,014	3,421	628	4,049	664,063
II. Mines and manufactures ...	98,724	3,776	102,500	64,820	6,753	71,573	174,073
III. Trade and money market ...	3,590	1,391	4,981	11,100	4,350	15,450	20,431
IV. Transport ...	12,617	12	12,629	8,424	1	8,425	21,054
V. Service	10,088	37,469	47,557	7,716	38,077	45,793	93,350
VI. Medical	234	936	1,164	633	574	1,207	2,371
VII. Education ...	3,882	550	4,432	2,482	486	2,968	7,400
VIII. Religion	4,932	...	4,932	835	6	841	5,773
IX. Law	2,748	...	2,748	6,616	28	6,644	9,392
X. Army and navy .	30,126	...	30,126	8,964	...	8,964	39,090

Table (B).—Mining and Metallurgy. Return of Numbers employed.

Provinces.	Iron Mines.	Iron Works. Smelting and Founding.	Lead and Silver Mines and Works.	Copper Mines and Works.	Sundry Works.	Total.
Norbotten	13	59	...	...	...	72
Vesterbotten	...	199	...	...	...	199
Vesternorrland	...	385	...	...	36	421
Jemtland	15	26	...	146	...	187
Gefleborg	202	1,394	...	...	...	1,596
Upsala	489	318	..	...	...	807
Stockholm	335	536	...	...	...	871
Kopparberg	857	2,007	10	50	80	3,004
Stara Kopparberg ...	...	...	...	810	24	834
Vestmanland	257	1,344	...	83	148	1,832
Sala Bergshauptman ...	...	...	357	...	...	357
Orebro	1,265	1,939	181	402	757	4,544
Skaraborg	...	214	...	...	2	216
Vermland	753	2,240	...	...	...	2,993
Elfsborg	...	363	...	...	...	363
Göteborg	...	216	...	...	...	216
Södermanland ...	206	482	...	29	7	724
Ostergötland	42	902	...	1,199	68	2,211
Calmar	62	483	...	265	175	985
Jönköping	72	365	...	12	89	538
Kronoberg	...	210	...	...	4	214
Halland	...	2	...	...	...	2
Blekinge	...	156	...	...	17	171
Kristianstad	...	60	...	...	40	100
Malmöhus	...	203	...	...	484	687
Total	4,568	14,103	548	2,926	1,929	24,154

Table (C).—Agricultural Labourers' Wages.

The daily wages are calculated in *pence*; the annual pay in *shillings*, British currency.

Province.	Per Day.				Per Year.			
	Summer.		Winter.		Lodged and Boarded.		Not Lodged or Boarded.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
	d. *d.*	*d.* *d.*	*d.* *d.*	*d.* *d.*	*s.*	*s.*	*s.*	*s.*
Stockholm	27 to 10	13 to 7	22 to 7	7 to 3½	165	66	385	220
Upsala	23 9	9 4	14 7	7 3½	165	88	385	275
Södermanland	27 7	10 3½	16½ 3	11½ 1½	121	55	275	165
Jönkoping	26 10	9 4	11 7	4 3	137	55	275	165
Calmar	16 12	10 6	13 8	6 3½	143	55	330	220
Malmöhus	17 10	9 7	10 7	7 6	150	55	330	165
Göteborg	15 9	8 7	9 7	7 5	110	48	330	210
Skaraborg	27 7	13 4	16 4	10 2½	167	80	353	216
Kopparberg	20 16	14 7	14 10	8 5	165	77	440	275
Gefleborg	27 10	16 7	20 7	14 3½	190	71	410	275
Jemtland	17 8	10 4	11½ 6	6 2	115	49	280	155
Westerbotten	20 14	10 4	14 7	7 3½	110	55	333	166
Norrbotten	20 14	14 3½	14 4½	8 1½	133	67	333	230
	d.	*d.*	*d.*	*d.*	£ *s.*	£ *s.* *d.*	£ *s.*	£ *s.* *d.*
Mean	20	8	10	5·5	7 4	3 4 6	17 3	10 10 6

Table (D).—Wages paid to Workmen and Artizans in Sweden.

Trade.	Wages.	Engagement.	Provincial Towns.
	s. *d.*		
Iron-founders	1 8 to 2 10 per day ...	None ...	Gothenburg, 10 per cent. higher.
Fine brass workers	2 0 3 3 „ ...	Ditto ...	Eskilstuna, 10 per cent. lower.
Farriers	1 3 2 2 „ ...	Weekly.	
Musical instrument makers .	2 6 3 6 „ ...	None.	
Piano makers	2 6 3 6 „ ...	Ditto.	
Surgical instrument makers .	2 3 4 0 „ ...	Weekly.	
Mathematical ditto	4 9 5 0 „ ...	None.	
Tanners	13 0 17 4 per week .	Weekly.	
Porcelain	2 4 ... per day ...	Quarterly.	
Watchmakers	11 6 22 0 per week .	Fortnightly.	Gothenburg, 5 per cent. lower.
Oil crushers	0 3 0 5 per hour .	None.	
Sugar refiners	1 3 2 6 per day ...	Half-yearly.	
Cotton weavers	0 9 1 2 „ ...	None ...	Gothenburg, 25 per cent. higher.
Type-founders	1 8 2 10 „ ...	Weekly.	
Paper-makers	1 2 3 0 „ ...	None ...	Gothenburg, 10 per cent. lower.
Goldsmiths	15 0 28 0 per week .	Fortnightly.	

2⅔ rix-dollars (2*s.* 10*d.*) per diem may be taken as the average of the earnings of the most skilled workmen in all fine trades; and when working by the piece 25 per cent. more.

Royal Statute relative to the Extended Freedom in Trading and Industrial Pursuits ("Närings frihet").

(Translation.)

Given at the Palace of Stockholm this 8th day of June, in the year 1864.

We, Charles, by the grace of God, King of Sweden, Norway, the Goths and the Vandals, make known:

That, whereas the Estates of the Kingdom, last assembled, did humbly propose certain amendments in the

existing laws relative to the right of practising trade and other civil industrial pursuits, and also the repeal of certain enactments in the Commercial Code; therefore, after having taken into consideration the propositions made as aforesaid by the estates of the Kingdom, together with other humble representations connected therewith, which have been presented to Us; and also the humble report and proposition on the subject demanded by Us from Our Royal and National Board of Commerce ("Kommers Kollegium"), We have found good, in order to provide more extended freedom in trading and industrial pursuits, graciously to decree as follows:

General Enactments relative to the Right of Practising Trade or other Industrial Pursuits.

§ 1. Every Swedish man and woman—with the exceptions and restrictions, and on the conditions hereinafter contained—is entitled, both in towns and in rural districts, to practise any trading or manufactural pursuit; any handicraft or other industrial employment; to export to foreign countries, or to import therefrom; to forward goods between places within the Kingdom; and also to own ships, both for home and foreign trade.

§ 2. To enjoy the right to practise mercantile business, or to sell goods in shops or other warehouses, or—with the assistance of any person or persons (other than wife and children living at home)—to manufacture goods or articles of handicraft for sale, or to engage in any other industrial pursuit, it is requisite to be of good character, and free from control with respect to both person and property.

The same conditions are binding for all persons who, either themselves, or by means of others, hawk and, otherwise than at public fairs, offer goods for sale beyond their proper place of abode. Such hawkers and dealers shall be provided with a certificate of having given due notification, pursuant to § 9; or, otherwise, a passport issued for the purpose by the proper authorities.

§ 3. Collectors of taxes, public accusers, and officials or subordinate servants of the Customs, shall not be entitled to engage in trade or dealing so long as they are in the exercise of any such office.

§ 4. A married woman, living with her husband, is

not forbidden to engage in trade or dealing, or any other industrial pursuit, provided her husband agree thereto, and assume the responsibility for all obligations she may incur in connection with her business or employment; this, notwithstanding, no woman shall engage in any trade or dealing, whose husband, pursuant to § 3, is forbidden to carry on such business.

§ 5. After the decease of any person engaged in trade or other industrial pursuit, such trade or industrial pursuit may be carried on for the term of twelve months for account of the heirs or assigns.

§ 6. Persons not of age may also obtain the right of engaging in trade or dealing, or other industrial pursuits, provided their guardians consent thereto, and assume the responsibility for such obligations incurred by the wards, as are described in § 4.

On the same conditions, provided any dealer or other person engaged in industrial pursuits be placed under guardianship, the business of such person may be continued.

§ 7. Factories in which any chemical process is requisite in the production of the goods manufactured, and in connection with which erroneous procedure may cause fire, or endanger life or health, shall not be carried on by others than those who either themselves possess trustworthy certificates of ability to manage such factories, or who shall produce evidence that they have engaged some other person possessing such certificate of skill.

§ 8. The enactments of § 1 relative to the right of engaging in trade or dealing, or any other industrial pursuit, shall not apply to the following:—

(*a.*) Bookseller's or printer's business;

(*b.*) The distillery or sale of corn-brandy ("bränvin"), or dealing in other distilled spirits;

(*c.*) The keeping of dining-rooms, wine cellars, coffee and refreshment rooms, hotels, inns, public-houses, or other similar places;

(*d.*) The manufacture or sale of gunpowder;

(*e.*) Dealing in poisons or other dangerous materials;

(*f.*) The profession of apothecary, or dealing in apothecary's goods;

(*g.*) Keeping flour-mills or saw-mills;

(*h.*) Surgeon-barber's business;

(*i.*) Organ-building; and,

(*k.*) The exercise of chimney-sweeper's business in towns:

With reference to all which special provisions are enacted.

§ 9. Section 1. Any person who, in a town or in a borough within the jurisdiction of a town, intends to engage in mercantile business, or to sell goods in a shop or some other warehouse; or, with the assistance of any person or persons (other than wife or children living at home), to manufacture goods, or make articles of handicraft for sale, or to exercise any other industrial pursuit, shall deliver in a written notification thereof to the magistrate of such town, or—where no magistrate exist—to the proper authorities of such town, accompanied by the certificate or certificates which, pursuant to § § 2, 4, 6, and 7, shall be required in each particular case.

A special register shall be kept of those who give such notifications, and the certificates delivered in shall also be separately preserved.

Sect. 2. Any person who intends to trade or practise any industrial pursuit referred to in the next preceding section, in any rural district or in a borough not within the jurisdiction of any determined town, shall give notification thereof—stating the parish in which he intends to exercise his trade or industry—to our Governor of the Province or the Bailiff of the district, or to such officer, as our Governor, when circumstances so demand, shall appoint for any prescribed limited district, to receive such notifications; and in all such cases the prescriptions enacted in the aforesaid section shall be observed.

Sect. 3. Any person who intends, either himself or by means of other person or persons, to hawk or sell goods in any other manner than at public fairs, beyond the place of his proper abode, shall, in order to become entitled to exercise such trade, and pursuant to the provisions contained in Sections 1 and 2 give notification thereof to the proper authorities of the place in which he is taxed, and likewise describe the person or persons he intends to employ as his assistants in such trade, at the same time delivering in a testimonial that such assistant or assistants are of good character and of age.

Sect. 4. The bailiff or the officer specially appointed pursuant to Section 2, shall, before the middle of each

month, deliver in to the Governor of the District a statement relative to any person or persons who, in the manner hereinbefore described, shall, during the next previous month notify that he or they intend to practise any trade or industrial pursuit; and also forward therewith the certificates delivered in for such purpose.

§ 10. Any person who intends to work a blasting-furnace, or foundry, a bar iron forge, or to produce manufactured iron, or in any other way to utilize or refine the produce of the mineral kingdom, yet in such manner that it cannot be regarded as a handicraft, shall notify the same to the Central Mining Administration (inclosing the certificates prescribed in § 9, Section 1), which shall proceed, in connection therewith, in the same manner as is provided for our Governors; in addition to which the special prescriptions enacted for the exercise of such pursuits shall also be observed.

§ 11. Persons residing in the country are entitled, without notification, to make for sale, with the assistance of their wives and children living at home, and their lawfully hired servants, such articles of manufacture and handicraft as they can produce by domestic industry.

§ 12. Institutions founded by the Government or communal authorities, in connection with the maintenance of the poor or the custody of prisoners, and also educational and charitable establishments of every kind, are likewise entitled to produce for sale articles of manufacture and handicraft, subject to the provisions hereinbefore described.

Trade Associations.

§ 13. Persons exercising the same or different trades may determine whether or not they will form and constitute an association for matters relating to the trade or trades exercised by such associated members.

§ 14. Associations of the character above described which, for the administration of their property or their general operations desire to establish regulations and to receive the sanction of the public authorities for the same shall give notification thereof, in Stockholm, at the office of the Grand Governor, and in other places to our Governor of the District.

Merchants' Clerks, Shopmen, Factory Hands, Artizans, and persons employed in any other Industrial Pursuit.

§ 15. Sect. 1. Any dealer who desires to engage a person to assist him in his business, or any manufacturer, tradesman, artizan, or other person exercising any industrial pursuit, who desires to engage a workman shall, in the presence of witnesses summoned for the purpose, enter into an agreement concerning such engagement, definitely determining the conditions and also the term of engagement, which shall not exceed three years. Such agreements, when made for a minor, shall be entered into with the guardians and shall not extend beyond the time at which such minor shall attain his majority.

Sect. 2. Persons practising any trade or industrial pursuit, who shall take into their service, or employ any poor child without parents or guardians shall possess over such child the authority of a parent until it shall have attained its majority.

Sect. 3. Persons practising any trade or other industrial pursuit shall possess the usual authority of a master as determined by law over their assistants or workmen, provided it be not otherwise determined by special agreement. This, notwithstanding such assistant or workman shall not, without his own special consent, be employed in any work or charge unconnected with the trade or industry in question.

Sect. 4. No child shall be engaged as assistant to a dealer, or for work in any manufacture, handicraft, or other industrial pursuit until after the full age of twelve years.

§ 16. In factories and workshops, no one under the age of 18 years shall be employed during the night, between the hours of 9 o'clock in the evening and 5 o'clock in the morning.

§ 17. Sect. 1. Masters in trade or other industrial pursuits shall provide with fatherly care that the assistants or workmen in their employ (especially those who, being minors, board and lodge in their houses) be encouraged in habits of piety, regularity, and morality, and that such as have not acquired the minimum degree of knowledge prescribed by the National School Regulations receive instruction on such days and at such hours as

they shall determine, and further that their assistants or workmen diligently attend the Technical Sunday Schools, where such are established, or other places of instruction intended for the improvement of the industrial classes.

Sect. 2. Masters in trade or other industrial pursuits shall likewise, in the treatment and employment of their assistants or workmen, give due consideration to the health and capabilities for labour of those whom they so employ.

Sect. 3. Merchants' clerks, shopmen, and workmen employed in factories, handcrafts, or other industrial pursuits, shall manifest to the dealers, manufacturers, artizans, or others in whose service they are employed, all due respect, and obey the orders given by their employers relative to the proper work or duties connected with their trade or industry, and diligently and carefully discharge their duties in general; and shall not, by negligence or irregularity, waste or do injury to their employers' property.

Sect. 4. With regard to the general relations between masters engaged in trade or other industrial pursuits and the assistants or workmen in their employ, the provisions of the common law shall be observed, and also, when applicable—provided not otherwise determined by special agreement—the provisions of the law relative to the hire of servants.

Penalties for Infringement of certain Provisions contained in this Statute.

§ 18. Those who, without previous notice, when such is required, or compliance with that which is herein enacted, practise the sale or manufacture of goods, or otherwise infringe the freedom granted to trade and industry which in special cases is determined by this Statute; or in any other way transgress against the regulations given on these matters, shall be subject to a fine of not less than 5 and not exceeding 200 riksdalers (5*s.* 6½*d.* to 11*l.* 2*s.* 2½*d.*)

§ 19. Dealers and others engaged in trade or industrial pursuits who, contrary to the provisions of § 15, Section 4, employ in labour or service children under 12

years of age, shall be subject to a fine of not less than 5 and not exceeding 50 riksdalers (5*s.* 6½*d.* to 2*l.* 15*s.* 6½*d.*)

§ 20. Manufacturers and artizans who infringe the provisions enacted in § 16, against the employment, at night, of persons under age in labour, shall be subject to a fine of not less than 5 and not exceeding 50 riksdalers (5*s.* 6½*d.* to 2*l.* 15*s.* 6½*d.*) for each person so employed.

§ 21. Dealers and others engaged in trades and other industrial pursuits who neglect to observe the provisions contained in § 17 Sections 1 and 2, with respect to the care for the morality, education, and health of their clerks, assistants, or workmen, shall be subject to a fine of not less than 10 and not exceeding 200 riksdalers (12*s.* 2½*d.* to 11*l.* 2*s.* 2½*d.*)

§ 22. Clerks, assistants, or workmen who infringe the regulations contained in § 17, Section 3, shall be subject to a fine of not less than 5 and not exceeding 20 riksdalers (5*s.* 6½*d.* to 1*l.* 2*s.* 2½*d.*), provided the common law do not prescribe a higher penalty.

§ 23. The fines above-mentioned fall to the Crown, and in case of non-payment other punishment shall be substituted, pursuant to the provisions of the Criminal Law of 16th February, 1864.

Judicial Procedure.

§ 24. Questions relating to the infringement of the above enactments shall be decided by a court of justice.

In towns, where police courts exist, such courts shall continue to adjudicate in those questions of this nature, which, by special enactments, at present appertain to the jurisdiction of such courts, and appeal from the decision of the police courts, shall be made in the manner enacted for the prosecution of such cases.

The Freedom to engage in Trade or other Industrial Pursuits that may be acquired by Aliens.

§ 25. Aliens may own ships both for home and foreign trade; this, notwithstanding the share owned by an alien or aliens, shall in no case exceed a third part of the total tonnage of any vessel.

Aliens shall not be the managing owners of any vessel.

§ 26. It shall in each case depend upon special resolution, whether aliens, male or female, who have obtained our gracious permission to settle in the Kingdom, shall be permitted to practise trade and manufacture, handicraft, or other other industrial pursuits.

Applications in this respect shall be made in Stockholm to the Grand Governor's Office ("Ofverstäthällare Embetet"), and in other places to Our Governor of the district, and shall be accompanied by the following:—

(*a.*) Certificates that the applicant is of age and of good character; and,

(*b.*) An acceptable bond or other security for the payment of Crown taxes and communal rates for the term of three years.

§ 27. If the application be for freedom to practise trade, manufacture, or handicraft in any town, the Grand Governor's Office, or our Governor of the district, shall resolve thereon, further inquiries—when requisite—having been previously instituted relative to the applicant.

Provided, notwithstanding the applicant deliver in the prescribed documents, any cause shall exist against granting the application, the matter shall be submitted to our gracious consideration.

If the application be for freedom to practise an industrial pursuit in any borough or rural district, our governor of such district shall demand a humble Report thereon from the proper authorities, and, subsequently, the documents in the matter, accompanied by our Governor's opinion, shall be sent in to our Civil Department for submission to our immediate consideration.

§ 28. Applications for freedom to work blast furnaces, foundries, bar iron forges, or to produce manufactured iron, or in any other way to utilize or refine the production of the mineral kingdom, in such manner that it cannot be regarded as a handicraft, shall be made (accompanied by the certificates prescribed in § 26 *a*) to the Central Mining Administration, which shall act in connection therewith pursuant to the provisions contained, and in the order prescribed in the aforesaid paragraph, and in the first and second sections of § 27.

§ 29. Aliens to whom freedom has been granted to practise trade or other industrial pursuits in the Kingdom, are likewise entitled to forward goods both between

places within the kingdom, and also to or from foreign ports.

§ 30. The general enactments and provisions contained in this Statute relative to the practice of trade and industrial pursuits, and matters connected therewith, when applicable, shall also be observed with regard to aliens.

§ 31. The extent, if any, to which Norwegian men and women shall be entitled to more extended freedom than that which is hereby granted to aliens, shall be determined by special enactment.

In connection with that which we have now graciously enacted, we hereby repeal Chapter II and the last Section of Chapter III, together with Chapters IV, V, VI and VII of the Commercial Code; the Trade, Manufacturing, and Handicraft Regulations of the 22nd of December, 1864, with the subsequent amendments and additions thereto: and also all other decrees, enactments, and resolutions that are at variance with the above Gracious Statute, or that contain provisions relative to special trading privileges for the inhabitants of certain parts of the country.

The which all whom it may concern shall obediently observe. In further verification whereof, we have hereto subscribed Our name with Our own hand and caused Our royal seal to be affixed thereto.

Palace of Stockholm, this 18th day of June in the year 1864.

(Signed) CARL.
(Royal seal.)

(Countersigned) G. LAGERSTRALE.

No. 8.

Mr. Burnley to the Earl of Clarendon.—(Received January 4, 1870.)

My Lord, *Dresden, December* 24, 1869.

ON receipt of your Lordship's Circular despatch of the 30th of April, on the subject of a Report relative to

the position of the working classes in foreign countries, I put myself in communication with the Dresden Chamber of Commerce, and received from Dr. Reutsch, its Secretary, the valuable information which I now forward to your Lordship translated as accurately as the difficult technical nature of the subject will permit.

I beg at the same time to inclose in translation a letter which I have received from M. H————, of Chemnitz, the largest machine and locomotive manufacturer of Saxony, and perhaps one of the largest in Germany as to the effect of the strikes in our foreign trade. His letter is in reply to one I addressed to him, inclosing Mr. Ashworth's latest controversial letter to Mr. Potter, with the view of ascertaining the average rate of wages in his establishment as compared with the Creusot rate and that at Mr. Robinson's Atlas Works in Manchester.

M. H————, who has in his employ 2,500 work-people, appeared to me well qualified to judge of continental trade.

Your Lordship will perceive that the average rate at Chemnitz is 2*s.* 5½*d.* a day as against 2*s.* 11*d.* at Creusot and 4*s.* 5¾*d.* in the Manchester Atlas Works.

If a comparison of this kind can be safely made Saxony would appear to work the cheapest of any.

I have, &c.

(Signed) J. HUME BURNLEY.

Inclosure 1 in No. 8.

Report by Dr. Reutsch upon the Position of Artizans and Industrial Classes in Saxony.

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1. *Statistics.*

As a general rule in the census of population which is taken in every three years in Saxony, a particular rubric is devoted to the calling and occupation of the inhabitants. Since the year 1861 these special Tables

giving statistical information as to trades and manufactures have not been renewed.

Although the various annual Reports of the Boards of Trade have to a certain extent filled up this hiatus for certain special branches, still a general comparative view of trade has not been taken since the complete and exhaustive one of 1861.

The mode adopted for obtaining a census of trade is based on the same system as the one in use for the population.

In the general census lists there are the usual columns for sex, age, and occupation.

In those of 1861 an additional series of questions were put to each manufacturer, requiring them to state the nature of their business and where it was situated, the number of persons in their employ whether as directors, overseers, commis, bureau clerks, workmen, or apprentices, giving age and sex, and distinguishing whether above or under 14. They were furthermore required to give the kind of machinery in use with the horsepower. Besides this there was a direct census taken of the most important branches of trade in separate establishments.

In 1861 the population of Saxony amounted to 2,225,240 souls, of which number 819,621 were distributed in 142 towns, and 1,405,619 in villages.

The proportion of labourers, viz., those who had no independent calling of their own, but who were more or less dependent for their wages on others was for the different headings as follows :—

I.—Land and Forest Culture.

Workmen	163,828
Day labourers	66,261
Foresters and meadow workers	3,600
Gardeners	1,553

II.—Industries.

(*a.*)—*Mining and Smelting Works.*

Miners	33,033
Smelters	2,010
Quarrymen	2,038

(b.)—Production of Food.

Millers	5,753
Bakers and Confectioners—	
Masters	3,683
Apprentices	4,944
Butchers—	
Masters	115
Apprentices	44
Fishmongers—	
Masters	115
Apprentices	44
Brewers	1,316
Distillers	557

(c.)—Personal Services.

Barbers and coiffeurs	674
Flayers	42

(d.)—Preparation of Articles for Manufacturing purposes.

Tanners	937
Paper makers	1,484
Soap boilers	205
Oil millers	240
Saw makers	531

(e.)—Preparation of Articles of Clothing, &c.

Shoemakers—	
Masters	13,013
Apprentices	10,868
Saddlers and harness makers—	
Masters	1,861
Apprentices	3,242
Tailors—	
Masters	8,939
Apprentices	7,526
Hatters..	737
Furriers—	
Masters	682
Apprentices	741
Straw bonnet and artificial flower makers ..	2,712
Umbrella makers..	46
Crinoline makers..	331

(f.)—Furnishers of Dwellings, &c.

Joiners	6.225
Coopers..	1,248
Workers in wood..	2,420
Basket and sieve makers	797
Polishers	301
Turners..	975
Bookbinders	1,446
Workers of carpets and articles of luxury ..	173

(*g.*)—*Textile Industry.*

Spinners	16,698
Ropemakers	1,020
Weavers	48,490
Cloth makers	4,979
Gimp makers	4,574
Stocking weavers	27,500
Embroiderers	15,029
Lace makers	24,466
Straw plaiters	2,775
Finishers	2,130
Dyers	1,142
Cloth printers	1,458
Wax cloth workers	207

(*h.*)—*Workers in Metals.*

Iron founders	1,960
Blacksmiths—	
Masters	3,853
Apprentices	4,228
Locksmiths—	
Masters	1,194
Apprentices	3,383
Nailers	615
Cutlers	283
Needlers	254
File cutters	238
Copper and brassware workers	118
Workers in bronze and yellow metal	139
Girdlers—	
Masters	379
Apprentices	461
White metal workers	1,864
Pewterers—	
Masters	118
Apprentices	68
Gold and silver workers	198
Gold and silver thread ware	223
Surgical instrument makers	13
Mechanicians	431
Pianoforte makers	213
Musical instrument makers	1,525
Watchmakers	498

(*i.*)—*Mineral and Chemical substances.*

Brick and lime burners	1,447
Coke and gas workers	197
Carton pierre workers	13
Potters	1,058
Porcelain and earthenware workers	751
Workers in glass houses	186
Glaziers—	
Masters	880
Apprentices	798
Stonemasons	1,473
Journeymen in chemical works	525

(*k.*)—*Labourers on Buildings.*

Bricklayers—	
Masters	663
Apprentices	23,549
Carpenters—	
Masters	652
Apprentices	15,820
Upholsterers—	
Masters	598
Apprentices	1,158
Slaters—	
Masters	523
Apprentices	753
Paviours.	192
Pump makers	69
Sweeps—	
Masters	188
Apprentices	327

(*l.*)—*Machinery, &c.*

Wheelwrights—	
Masters	2,184
Apprentices	1,667
Shipbuilders	133

(*m.*)—*People without any Special Trade.*

Factory people	14,773
Day labourers	54,498
Needlewomen and knitters	34,724
Weavers of all kinds	10,992

III.—Trade and Manufactures.

(*a.*)—*Trade.*

Dealers in stone, wood, coals, &c.	408
Provision dealers	6,054
Colonial goods	10,346
Bankers, commissioners, and agents	2,042
Fripperers, peddlers	3,181

(*b.*)—*Literary Productions.*

Printers	1,903
Type founders	521
Lithographers and engravers	624
Booksellers	592
Antiquaries	51
Circulating libraries	10
Newsvendors	373

(*c.*)—*Passenger, Goods, and Post.*

Railway officials	5,078
Post-office officials	1,171
Telegraph officials	31
Sailors, &c.	1,466
Roadmakers and overseers	1,172
Carriers	1,639
Messengers and sedan carriers	739
Keepers of booths	61
Hotel keepers and waiters	8,066

IV.—Administrative.

(*a.*)—*Judicial.*

Judicial officers	4,021
Executive	3,957
Tax-gatherers	1,162
Writers, copyists	2,544

It is hardly necessary to observe that with the increase in the population which according to the last census of the 3rd of December, 1867, amounted to 2,423,856, there was also a corresponding increase in the number of labourers and workpeople; in some special branches of trade there was a greater increase in the working hands than the average increase in the population would warrant, as, for instance, in the following cases:—

	1861.	1869.
Blast furnaces and ironworks	2,173	2,586
Collieries	10,284	14,437
Brown coal mines	3,428	4,007
Paper mills	1,484	2,876
Straw plaiting	2,775	6,728
Artificial flower workers	2,057	3,157
Cigar manufactories	5,417	10,650

And so on with many other branches, showing with some exceptional fluctuations a pretty steady increase over and above the average increase in the ratio of population.

2. *Wages.*

It is a matter of common observation that, with the exception of fixed salaries, the average rate of wages paid weekly has increased very considerably in Saxony within the last ten years. Generally speaking the rate of wages corresponded with the higher price of food, the

increased demands for clothing, house-rent, and other wants of life. In but few instances was it owing to the greater productiveness, skill, or capacity of the workman.

The following Table for July 1869, the result of direct questions addressed to the various trades, applies to the whole of Saxony, and it will be observed what great variations there are been the minimum and maximum rate. The age of the workman makes also a considerable difference whether, namely, he is a skilled artizan or an apprentice just articled to a trade. The Table affects only the working classes above the age of 14, the wages of children which are subject even to greater fluctuations not being taken into account. In many trades also the workman receives a portion of his wages in the shape of board and lodging, preventing the possibility of any exact computation, whilst others again receive a fixed weekly rate. Wherever the work done was by the piece, a general average was struck.

The following schedule gives the rates for male and female operatives above the age of 14 :—

Weekly Rate for Six Working Days.	Males.						Females.			
	Minimum.			Maximum.			Min.		Max.	
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Bakers	0	4	6	0	13	6				
Barbers	0	6	0	0	18	0				
Mill operatives	0	3	0	0	12	0	2	8	5	0
Miners	0	3	0	0	12	0				
Glovers	0	5	3	0	9	0	4	6	7	6
Brewers	0	7	6	1	4	0				
Artificial-flower makers	0	3	0	0	15	0	3	0	15	0
Coopers	0	6	0	0	18	0				
Operatives in distilleries	0	9	0	0	15	0				
Bookbinders	0	7	6	0	15	0	3	6	7	6
Type-setters	0	12	0	1	1	0				
Ditto for boys and girls	0	1	0	0	6	0	4	0	9	0
Brush makers	0	6	0	0	12	0				
In chemical works	0	6	0	1	1	0	3	7	7	2
In chocolate works	0	3	0	1	4	0	4	0	9	0
Chicory works	0	3	0	0	15	0				
Key-boards for pianos	0	6	0	0	18	0				
Cigar workers	0	6	0	0	18	0	3	9	9	0
Illuminators of woodcuts	0	9	0	1	4	0				
Ready-made apparel	0	3	0	1	4	0	4	6	12	0
Confectioners	0	9	0	0	18	0				
Asphalt-roofers	0	12	0	0	18	0				
Turners	0	7	6	0	18	0				
Iron foundries	0	7	6	1	10	0				
Dyers	0	6	0	0	18	0				
File-cutters	0	9	0	0	15	0				
Fishermen	0	6	0	0	12	0				
Butchers	0	6	0	0	18	0				
Barbers	0	3	0	1	4	0	3	0	12	0

Weekly Rate for Six Working Days.	Males.						Females.			
	Minimum.			Maximum.			Min.		Max.	
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Gardeners	0	6	0	0	18	0	3	0	6	0
Brass-founders	0	6	0	1	8	6				
Glaziers	0	6	0	0	15	0				
Glass-works	0	7	6	3	0	0				
Gold and silversmiths	0	6	0	1	7	0				
Bell-foundries	0	6	0	1	5	6				
Goldbeaters	0	6	0	1	5	6	4	0	10	6
Gold-cornice workers	0	3	0	0	18	0	3	0	8	3
Girdlers and braziers	0	4	6	1	2	6				
Engravers	0	6	0	1	4	0				
Cast-steel workers	0	7	6	2	2	0				
Wood-pulp workers	0	6	0	0	7	6				
Smelting works and blast furnaces	0	6	0	1	10	0				
Hatters	0	6	0	1	4	0	3	6	9	9
Instrument makers	0	6	0	0	18	0				
Worsted spinning-mills	0	5	0	1	10	0	3	9	11	0
Comb makers	0	6	0	0	15	0				
Tinmen	0	6	0	1	4	0				
Button makers	0	4	6	0	15	0	3	0	7	0
Basket makers	0	6	0	0	15	0				
Furriers	0	4	6	0	15	0	3	0	9	9
Coppersmiths	0	6	0	0	18	0				
Varnishers	0	6	0	1	1	0				
Lampmakers	0	6	0	1	7	0				
Tanners	0	9	0	0	18	0				
Linen and cloth-workers	0	4	0	0	10	6	2	8	5	7½
Gold and silver embroidery	0	4	6	1	4	0	3	7	15	0
Lithographers	0	6	0	1	4	0				
Machine makers	0	6	0	1	16	0				
House-painters	0	6	0	1	4	0				
Masons	0	7	6	0	18	0				
Opticians	0	8	0	1	16	0				
Cutlers	0	6	0	1	4	0				
Meerschaum makers	0	3	0	1	10	0	3	0	12	0
Cap makers	0	6	0	0	15	0	4	6	8	3
Pin workers	0	6	0	0	12	0				
Nailsmiths	0	3	0	0	15	0				
Paper makers	0	3	0	1	13	0	3	0	9	0
Cardboard makers	0	6	0	0	18	0	4	0	7	0
Photographers	0	9	0	1	16	0				
Workmen in porcelain works	0	6	0	0	12	0	3	0	7	6
Artists in ditto	0	12	0	2	2	0	6	0	27	0
Guimp makers	0	6	0	0	10	6	3	0	6	0
Powdermills	0	9	0	0	12	0				
Harness makers	0	7	6	0	13	6				
Turkey-red dyers	0	6	0	0	18	0	3	0	6	0
Fire-engine builders	0	6	0	1	17	0				
Saddlers	0	7	6	0	15	0				
Ferrymen	0	6	0	0	18	0				
Umbrella makers	0	7	6	0	15	0	4	0	15	0
Lock and gunsmiths	0	7	6	0	15	0				
Farriers	0	7	6	0	15	0				
Tailors	0	6	0	0	18	0	3	0	13	6
Sawmills	0	9	0	1	4	0	4	6	6	0
Sweeps	0	9	0	0	18	0				
Shoemakers	0	6	0	0	10	6	3	0	7	0
Distillers	0	9	0	0	16	6				
Soap boilers	0	9	0	0	15	0				
Rope makers	0	7	6	0	13	6				
Wire-sieve makers	0	7	6	0	10	6				
Toy makers	0	3	0	0	12	0	1	6	6	0

Weekly Rate for Six Working Days.	Males.						Females.			
	Minimum.			Maximum.			Min.		Max.	
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Piece-work in mines	0	6	0	0	13	6	4	6	6	0
Day's work in ditto	0	0	7	0	1	9				
Quarrymen, in summer	0	9	0	0	15	0				
Ditto, in winter	0	6	0	0	7	6				
Potteries	0	6	0	1	10	0	7	6	9	0
Stonemasons, in summer	0	9	0	1	10	0				
Ditto, in winter	0	6	0	0	18	0				
Walkingstick makers	0	6	0	1	1	0	4	6	6	9
Straw-hat workers		..			..		3	7	7	6
Hosiery weavers	0	6	0	0	9	0				
Plasterers..	0	9	0	0	18	0				
Frame makers	0	6	0	0	12	0				
Day labourers	0	6	0	0	12	0	3	0	7	6
Paper-hanging factories	0	6	0	1	7	0	3	0	7	6
Upholsterers	0	6	0	0	12	0				
Tar and paraffine works	0	9	0	0	13	2				
Joiners and rough-stockers	0	6	0	0	15	0				
Potters	0	6	0	0	18	0				
Cloth makers	0	5	0	0	18	0	3	0	7	6
Cloth shearers	0	7	6	0	15	0				
Clockmakers	0	7	6	1	10	0				
Gilders on wood	0	7	6	0	16	6				
Wheelwrights	0	7	6	0	11	6				
Weavers	0	3	0	0	12	0	3	0	7	6
Tawers	0	7	6	0	18	0				
Wool-spinners	0	3	0	0	12	0	3	0	7	6
Whitesmith work	0	6	0	0	12	0				
Tilers	0	9	0	0	15	0				
Carpenters	0	7	6	0	18	0				
Tin-founders	0	6	0	0	10	6				
Hand-tool makers	0	6	0	0	12	0				

It may be safely asserted that the Saxon workman is second to none in quickness and aptitude, in willingness to work, and in moral qualities ; his failing lies, perhaps, more in his capability of doing a certain amount of work, not so much from the want of industry, but from not making the most use of his time. As a general rule twelve to thirteen hours constitute the working day of the labourer, including the pauses for meals, whilst in those establishments where the workman does not get board and lodging from his employer (getting more and more into vogue), twelve hours is the usual time.

In Chemnitz, for example, sixty-five hours are taken as the normal amount of weekly work, divided day by day as follows :—

Monday from 7 to 8 A.M., from 1·30 to 12, and from 1 to 6 P.M. Tuesdays, Wednesdays, Thursdays, and Fridays from 6 to 8 A.M., from 8·30 to 12, and from 1 to

7 P.M. Saturdays from 6 to 8 A.M., from 8·30 to 12, and from 1 to 5 P.M.

In the factories where wages are paid fortnightly, work, on pay-day, usually a Friday, is stopped at 6 P.M., and an hour taken to pay the workpeople in order that their wives may be able to do their marketing early on Saturday's market-day.

This hour is made up on the Saturday not preceded by a pay-day, when work is continued to 6 P.M. Where it is not piece-work, wages are generally calculated in the same way upon the basis of sixty-five working hours to the week.

It therefore appears that taking the whole year into account 3,104 hours at the rate of 10 hours a-day, may be looked upon as the working capacity of the German, against 3,040 hours of the Englishman.

The latter does not take his meals like the German, but works continuously and quietly from 7 to 12, and from 1 to 6 P.M.

The Saxon workman, on the other hand, takes half an hour to his breakfast, and although there may be no fixed time for dinner, he is generally allowed to eat his loaf during his work.

It follows, therefore, that the German workman, although he works a longer time in point of hours, does not produce more than the Englishman.

3. *Legislative Regulations with regard to Working Contracts.*

The laws of the 15th of October, 1861, and 23rd of June, and 16th of July, 1868, had reference up to the present more particularly to contracts.

On the 1st of October, 1869, the trade law of the North German Confederation came into play, which does not materially differ from the Saxon law on this subject.

The most important clauses are the following :—

1. The settlement of engagements between the workman and his employer is a matter of mutual agreement.

Unless otherwise provided, owing to the pressure of business, no workman is obliged to work on the Sundays (§ 105).

2. Journeymen and assistants are free to choose their own masters and employers. No workman is under an obligation to travel (formerly every apprentice when he had served his time was obliged to travel about before he could become a master).

Travelling apprentices have no claim for support from Trade Unions (§ 114).

3. Every manufacturer is bound at his own expense to make and maintain the necessary arrangements for securing the workman from loss of life or health (§ 107).

4. The competent authorities have to see that proper attention is paid to the health and morality of the workman, and that those apprentices who have still to undergo religious and school instruction should be allowed the necessary time for this purpose (Section 106). Apprentices who have not passed their 18th year are to be allowed the necessary time to improve themselves at one or the other of the industrial schools.

5. All disputes between masters and workmen are to be decided by the particular authorities to whom such disputes are referred, if any such exist, if not by the communal authorities (§ 100).

6. A fortnight's notice must be given on either side, unless some other arrangement has been agreed on.

7. Workmen can be dismissed before the end of their term of work, and without legal notice, as above :—

(*a.*) If he has been guilty of theft or leads an immoral life.

(*b.*) If they refuse to fulfil their duties according to the terms of their contract.

(*c.*) If after warning they go about carelessly with fire or lights.

(*d.*) If they are guilty of any improprieties towards the master or the members of his family.

(*e.*) If their conduct with regard to members of the employer's family is open to suspicion, or if they induce their fellow-workmen to act contrary to law and good morals.

(*f.*) If they are incapable of further work or have an infectious disease (§ 111.)

8. Apprentices can leave before the expiry of their contract, and without legal notice—

(*a.*) If they are incapable of further work.

(*b.*) If the employer is guilty of excesses towards him or the members of his family.

(*c.*) If he induces the workmen to commit acts contrary to law and good morals.

(*d.*) If he does not pay them their stipulated rate of wages, or, if their work is by the piece, does not find them the necessary employment, or is guilty of fraudulent actions.

(*e.*) If by continuing work their life or health is exposed to dangers not foreseen at the time the contract was drawn up (§ 112).

9. The workman at the end of his term can require a certificate showing the length and nature of his occupation, to be stamped and registered free of expense by the parish authorities. This certificate, at the desire of the workman is to state what his general conduct has been.

10. Manufacturers and all those who trade in entire and semi-manufactures are bound to pay their workmen in ready money. They are not allowed to remain in their debt. On the other hand, while the workman gets board and lodging and firing, medicines or medical assistance, as well as tools and raw materials for his work, these items may be taken into account in the settlement of their wages (§ 134).

11. Whoever intends to engage young workmen in a factory regularly has to give the necessary notice to the police authorities.

The employer has to keep a list of those so employed in his establishment giving their names, age, residence, parents, entry into and exit from the factory, and to hang it up in his workshop, and give a copy of it, if required, to the police authorities. He has also to make semi-annual returns to the police authorities of the numbers he employs (§ 130).

12. No young workman is to be regularly employed until the father or guardian has given to the employer a work-book.

This work-book, in which §§ 128 and 133 of the law are to be printed, has to be given by the police authorities on demand to the father or guardian, and is to contain the following :—

(*a.*) Name, date, and year of birth, and religion of workman.

(*b.*) Name, profession, and residence of father or guardian.

(*c.*) Certificate as to school instruction.

(*d.*) Column as to class of school he attends.

(*e.*) Column for date of entering the establishment.

(*f.*) Column for leaving it.

(*g.*) Column as to conduct.

The employer has to keep this book, to lay it before the authorities if required, and, at the end of the workman's term of service, to hand it back to the father or guardian (§ 131).

13. Children under twelve are not to be permanently employed in factories. Before the age of fourteen children are only to be employed, if they attend for three hours' daily school instruction in one or other of the schools specified by the authorities. They are forbidden to be employed more than six hours daily. Workmen who have passed their fourteenth year, but are not yet sixteen, must not be employed longer than ten hours in a factory. The local authorities can restrict this to six hours, if, according to the school regulations of his district, the workman is considered to be still of an age to go to school.

The local authorities are empowered to grant an extension of one hour in the working time, but not for longer than four weeks, if from accidents or other circumstances in the establishment, a great pressure of business requires it (§ 128).

14. Between the working hours the young workman must be allowed in the forenoon and afternoon a pause of half an hour, and at midday a full hour with regular exercise in the open air. Work is not to commence before 5·30 A.M., nor to be protracted beyond 8·30 P.M. On Sundays and festival days, as well as on occasions set apart by the Church Pastor for instruction in confirmation, young workmen are not to be employed (§ 129).

4. *Material Well-being of the Labouring Classes.*

The circumstances of the labouring classes are so very varied in Saxony that it is almost impossible to lay down any general rule which may suit them all. An average weekly gain of from 9*s.* to 12*s.* (say from 22*l.* to

30*l.* per annum), would not be sufficient for the absolute wants of the family, if the wife and children as soon as they were able, did not contribute as much as possible to the general fund. Their circumstances can therefore never be such as would enable them to lay by large sums. Nevertheless it is very gratifying to know that, on the whole, the Saxon workman, with that ingrained spirit of content peculiar to him, knows how to keep himself and his family on this sum, and frequently to lay by something which, as is the case of the mining districts of the plains (Plattland), enables him after a time to buy a small house, and a plot of ground attached to it. Drunkenness has no doubt considerably diminished, but the desire for dress and amusement among the younger generation appears to increase. Notwithstanding this, the accounts of the workmen in the saving banks are constantly increasing.

Very interesting observations were made lately among the Chemnitz factory population, when it was a question of raising subscriptions towards a general hospital fund.

The savings' banks had lists sent to them and were requested to note who saved money, whether regularly, whether much or little, the actual sums saved were not asked for. The names and number of those saving were thus obtained. The same was done with the pawnbrokers. An estimate could thus be formed as to those who neither saved nor pawned.

The best depositors, it appears, were the married workmen on small wages, and with the largest families, when the youngest was about 7, and most of the children boys. Of this class 70 per cent. were depositors, from 4 to 5 per cent. possessing houses. After these came the better paid class, earning from 15*s.* to 1*l.* 1*s.* a week. Of these 30 per cent. were depositors, 40 per cent. neither saved nor pawned, and 30 per cent. made use of the pawnbroker's shop.

The latter belong to a class of workmen who do not stay long in one factory, but who confide in their skill, and when work is brisk are frequently in demand. Should, however, periods of difficulty occur as in 1866, when factories are obliged to diminish their hands, these are among the first to be paid off. The workpeople in machine factories, who earn from 10*s.* 6*d.* to 12*s.* a week

are for the most part the best off. A few live in towns, the larger portion in neighbouring villages.

They cultivate their own potatoes, and manage in fifteen or eighteen years to have a house of their own, with a plot of ground attached.

With regard to labourers' cottages, attempts have been made in Dresden, Leipzig, and Chemnitz, which have not, however, met with much favour.

On the other hand, the owners of isolated factories and glass houses, who employ people from remote districts have made very praiseworthy efforts to secure good lodgings for their hands.

Of the many beneficent institutions in a well organized state, mention may be made here of those having for their object the care taken of the workmen in cases of sickness.

The Saxon Law, § 16, of the 23rd of June, provides as follows:—

Factory people and apprentices are bound to contribute to a fund having for its object support to the workman in sickness, and defrayment of burial expenses.

It is not necessary that the workman should contribute to a particular fund, but to any answering the requirements of solidity in organization and membership.

Should they fail in this, the authorities are bound to proceed to the organization of such a fund to which all are bound to contribute who are not already contributors to a special fund. The same benefits may be obtained where the workman is under an obligation to contribute to a district hospital.

The Decree concerning guilds of 1810, and the further ordinances of the 15th of October, 1861, sections 73 to 83, and 97 to 100, gave some very excellent advice on this subject, which it was a pity was not followed out.

With regard to the sick fund in factories the contributions are generally in proportion to the weekly wages received, and vary from $\frac{1}{4}d.$ to $6d.$ a week.

The most usual weekly contribution for moderate wages is $\frac{1}{2}d.$ When so much per cent. is taken from the workman, the contribution amounts generally to from $\frac{1}{4}d.$ to $\frac{1}{2}d.$ per thaler ($3s.$) of weekly wages.

In many cases the workman decides himself whether he wishes to go to an hospital; in other cases the

physician has to decide. The expense of the hospital treatment is in this case paid out of the fund, no further support being granted.

With regard to those who are treated in their own houses the outside relief they receive varies exceedingly, according to length of illness, fluctuating between 6*d.* and 9*s.* a week. Assistance is rarely given during the whole period.

In some cases it is allowed for a year, in other cases for a half or a quarter of a year. In the mining districts assistance of this description lasts for a very short time, not always to the disadvantage of the workman, inasmuch as after a few weeks' illness he may lay claim to support from a so-called invalid fund. There is, however, no fixed rule on these points. The charity dispensed depends upon the feelings of the employer, as it comes out of his own pocket and not out of the sick fund.

The scale of pension granted varies according to length of service and amount of salary last received. At the same time many of the trades have not sufficient statistical data at hand to enable them to start, without great risk, a pension fund. Yet there can be no doubt that such a fund would be of material assistance in keeping together a good stock of workmen. In many cases members of the family are cared for out of some of the funds either in the shape of maintenance to widows and orphans, or by contributions to the school-money of the children, or by allowing relations of the workmen to become contributors to the sick fund. In the latter case the scale of contribution is much lower, and in periods of sickness only medical advice and medicine is given gratis.

Medical data go to show that among the workers in iron numerous cases of sickness occur not, as a rule, of a very protracted nature. Quarrymen suffer in a minor degree; the same may be said of the workmen in cigar manufactories, in mines, and in the Freiburg smelting works.

The most favourable conditions of health occur in the paper and chocolate manufactories, in sawmills, pocket-book manufactories, and in cotton mills.

A great deal of good has been effected by the so-called "Genossenschaftsverein," or system of association on the principle of Schulze-Delitsch, of which

a detailed account may be had in their Annual Report for 1868 (Leipzig Klinkhardt, 1869).

In 1868 there existed in Saxony 111 savings' banks and "Vorschussvereine," or loan societies.

37 of these had 24,435 members, and loaned sums amounting in the aggregate to 1,877,670*l.*

There were 15 so-called "Rohstoffgenossenschaften," or a kind of co-operative societies for buying raw material, and 91 "Consumvereine," or co-operative stores for provisions.

Intellectual Culture.

Among the countries which have done the most for the growing generation, by its compulsory education system in force up to the age of 14, and its admirably organized schools, Saxony takes a prominent place. The workman begins his life of activity with a certain amount of education not, perhaps, quite commensurate with the more modern aspirations on this point. The fact is that the elementary school is not sufficiently practical in its bearings, and the young workman, as soon as his schooling has ceased, forgets very quickly what he has learnt.

To remedy this in most of the towns Sunday schools have been organized, in which apprentices receive elementary instruction in drawing, arithmetic, German language, chemistry, and physics. Unfortunately, as there is no obligation to attend these schools, the results have not been satisfactory.

This is not to be wondered at when we consider how little a teacher can effect when he is restricted to one or two hours after Divine Service, where the attendance is irregular, where the capacities of the scholars vary in degree, and where he may not always know how to fit the theory and practice of mercantile life together. Nearly all the trade associations have declared themselves of late years in favour of compulsory attendance on Sunday schools, but at the same time have not taken into consideration that these schools should be better endowed, and more done for what is practical and useful.

The evening schools, however, form a praiseworthy exception; we propose, therefore, giving the number of

scholars and classes in these, and the curriculum of the Chemnitz Sunday school.

At the end of 1868 the distribution of scholars and classes was as follows:—

21 drawing classes, with 54 journeymen and 612 apprentices—666 scholars.

7 arithmetic classes, with 29 journeymen and 186 apprentices—215 scholars.

3 style classes, with 27 journeymen and 61 apprentices —88 scholars.

10 writing classes, with 47 journeymen and 284 apprentices—331 scholars.

8 classes for chemistry, geometry, stenography, geography, and history, book-keeping, and the heating of boilers, with 63 journeymen and 111 apprentices— 174 scholars.

The total number of scholars was, therefore, 1,474, divided into 49 classes under 39 teachers.

The girls' school has about 43 scholars.

The stokers' school, given up at one time, has re-opened again with 29 scholars.

The course of study in drawing is divided into two parts,—plain drawing, and line, or mechanical drawing. In plain drawing there are 6 progressive classes: the two lowest are elementary; in classes 4 and 3 the instruction is on the Dupuis method, and classes 2 and 1 draw from models of ornaments. The course for each class lasts six months. In mechanical drawing there are 3 classes. In the 3rd class the pupils have to become acquainted with the names and use of different instruments, and are made to draw simple geometrical figures. The 2nd class draw machines and parts of machines.

The length of the course in Classes 3 and 2 is six months. In the 1st class the pupils remain a year, and have to draw plans of whatever may come before them in their future calling. Carpenters and locksmiths have their particular classes. But all who attend any of these special classes must have graduated in the 3rd class of mechanical drawing.

The mathematical instruction is of some importance. The course is—

A. Arithmetic.

1. Arithmetical elements, including power, roots, and logarithms.
2. Decimal fractions.
3. Practical method of extraction of square root.
4. Extraction of cube root.

B. Explanation of French System of Weights and Measures.

C. Geometry.

1. Point, line, and angle.
2. Three lines in space, triangle.
3. Square.
4. Exercises for the transformation of figures.
5. Superficial area of rectilineal figures. Pythagorean problem.
6. Circle.

D. Stereometry.

Theory of solids.
To find convex surfaces.
Calculation of the weights of bodies from their contents.

E. Mechanics.

1. Theory of weight, velocity, and power.
2. Calculation of rotatory velocity.
3. Calculation of mechanical powers.
4. Effect of power from size and direction. Lever, pulley, system of pulleys, inclined plane, wedge, screw. Proportion of transmission of power in wheels and pulleys.
5. Explanation of curves, cycloids, epicycloids, involutes, helix.
6. Explanation and construction of wheels.

It is of importance to mention here that workmen's associations have been formed with the object of improving the intellectual education of their members, by means of paid teachers; lectures always in the evening and Sunday forenoons.

In the trade associations "Gewerbevereine," of which there are 102, with about 42,000 members, the workman has many opportunities afforded him of improving himself theoretically and technically, whether by lectures, reading-rooms, free discussions, or common excursions in the neighbourhood.

Socialist Tendencies.

The political revolutions of 1848 and the growth of communion and socialism in France have found their echo in Germany, but only attained to some importance in 1862, under the leadership of Ferdinand Lassalle. The struggle between labour and capital was then regularly organized, and Lassalle's efforts mainly tended towards inducing the State to make loans to "Productiv Genossenschaften," or Productive Co-operative Associations of the workmen, in order that they might come into possession of capital, and in this way have themselves a share in the profits of the enterprise. As, however, it was not to be expected that the State would at once place the 15,000,000 required at their disposal, it was of importance that the workmen should only send such deputies to the Chambers who would advocate their particular programme; and as, at that time, workmen had not the electoral franchise, Lassalle very logically put forward direct and universal suffrage. Under Lassalle's leadership the movement gained in importance and strength.

At his death it received a severe blow, as none of the succeeding Presidents were able to secure the confidence of their followers. When Schweitzer attempted at Berlin to unite the whole under his hand, the association split up into two sections, always at warfare with one another. At the head of one section was Dr. Schweitzer, at the head of the other was the Countess Hatzfeldt, with Firsteiling for Dresden, and Dr. Mende for Berlin. Of the two the only one that kept its ground was the Schweitzer section, mainly because the veterans of the social democratic party remained true to it.

The Workmen's Congress at Eisenach this year has, however, for the moment, upset the hopes of the Lassalleaners, of whom there were about 20,000 altogether,

4,000 belonging to Saxony, so that we must wait to see what new formation will arise out of the present chaos and confusion.

Inclosure 2 in No. 8.

Mr. H———— to Mr. Burnley.

(Translation.)

Sir, *Chemnitz, December* 13, 1869.

I FEEL obliged to you for your letter, inclosing copy of "Times" newspaper, with Mr. Ashworth's last letter to Mr. Potter, on the subject of the "Trades Unions."

These Unions have produced the most pernicious results to English trade. Not only have the engine-makers been driven from the German markets, but the same fate attends them in the non-German markets, *e.g.*, in Russia, from whence large orders for railway works have come, and where they had to succumb to German and French firms.

I know, from my own experience, that for a time no one ever ventured to give an order in England, as it was problematical whether the manufacturer would be in a condition to execute the order, or whether the "strikes" would not occasion months of delay.

As far as one can see, there seems to be no chance that "Trades Unions" will flourish in Saxony.

I know of only one instance of a strike, that among the workpeople in the Lauenstein Railway Carriage Factory at Hamburgh, by which the establishment sustained great loss.

The workmen returned, it is true, to their work; but, in the meantime, the business had been so shaken, that it will be very long before it can recover the effects.

The scale of wages per day of twelve hours, is as follows:—

	s.	*d.*
"Schlosser" (working engineer)	3	5
"Schmied" (smith)	4	11
"Giesser" (founder)	3	11
"Dreher" (turner)	3	5
"Locomotiv monteur" (fitter)	3	11

The average wages of our overmen all round, comes to 25 groschen, or 2*s.* 5½*d.* a-day.

The price of locomotives vary very considerably. The lightest, *i. e.*, the cheapest cost, 1,470*l.*, the heaviest and dearest, 2,353*l.*, without tender.

I am, &c.

No. 9.

Mr. Gordon to the Earl of Clarendon.—(Received January 4, 1870.)

(Extract.) *Stuttgardt, December* 31, 1869.

I HAVE the honour to transmit herewith the Report on the position of the artizan and industrial classes in Wurtemberg, which has been drawn up by Mr. Phipps, in compliance with the instructions contained in your Lordship's Circular despatch of the 30th of April last.

Inclosure in No. 9.

Report by Mr. Phipps on the Position of the Artizan and Industrial Classes in the Kingdom of Wurtemberg.

Stuttgardt, December 31, 1869.

THE industrial population of the Kingdom of Wurtemberg has largely increased during the last twelve years, partly owing to the great impetus given to industry of every description by the final abolition of the system of guilds, which, for so long restricted tho number of artizans and operatives in the respective branches of industry, and partly owing to the great universal development of manufactures in general, and the operation of free trade; so that the population which might formerly be considered as essentially an agricultural population, has now turned its energies more generally to industrial pursuits. How far such is the case, may be judged from the fact, that in 1862, 2,450,000 persons were employed in industry in the whole Zollverein, which has a population of about 30,000,000, while the industrial classes in

Wurtemberg number 270,000 out of a population of about 1,780,000. The industrial classes form, therefore, in the first instance, one-twelfth of the population; whereas, in this country, the proportion they bear to the rest of population, as that of 1 to 7.

In order to give more detailed information as to the proportion which the artizans and those employed in manufacturing industry bear to the other classes, the following Table, showing the distribution of the several classes of the population in 1868, when the last census was taken, will be found accurate :—

I.—Male population 849,000 persons, including :—		
1. Boys below 14 years of age		245,000
2. Men employed in husbandry; some, also, in handicraft		142.000
3. Farmers' sons assisting in husbandry ..		127.000
4. Day labourers		50,000
5. Merchants, manufacturers, artizans, carriers, innkeepers (including 125,800 workmen employed in manufactures and trade) ..		234,000
6. Public officials		184.000
7. Domestic servants		5.600
8. Soldiers		9,000
9. Persons employed in science, lawyers, learned professions, &c.		1,900
10. Scholars in schools of the superior class ..		3,500
11. Persons maintained in hospitals. lunatics, &c., or otherwise living upon public charity ..		8,000
12. Persons living on rents		4,600
		849,000
II.—Female population, 930,000 persons, distributed as follows :—		
1 Children below 14 . ..	127,000	
2. Children attending public schools	149,000	
		276.000
3. Married women		273.000
4. Widows and divorced		68,000
5. Single females :—		
a. Employed in husbandry ..	73,400	
b. Servants	6,000	
c. Independent workwomen .	20.600	
d. Employed in manufactories	14.200	
e. Living in their families ..	198,800	
		313.000
		930,000

A most important change in the condition of the industrial classes, and of industry in general, was brought to an issue in 1862, by the final suppression of the guilds, the privileges enjoyed by which were neither in accordance with modern notions, nor with the changes which had taken place in industry. Even in the year 1855, the branches of industry not in connection with the system of guilds, that is the manufactories, had acquired a development far exceeding those so organized, both on account of the importance of their products, and the intelligence of which they were the representatives. After many modifications of the system had been introduced, the guilds were finally, in February 1862, suppressed, and their property, amounting to 18,000*l.*, was divided among the technical schools, societies for the encouragement of industry, and similar institutions. The new law declared, that the exercise of all branches of industry in all localities was unrestricted, with the limitation that a concession or license was necessary for the exercise of the following trades: — apothecaries, brewers, distillers, innkeepers, printers, lithographers, &c., and booksellers, and thus began a new era of prosperity for the industrious classes collectively. While, however, the independence of the artizan was thus established, the suppression of institutions connected with the guilds, and which ensured the well-being of the working classes, their technical instruction, their support in times of sickness or distress, the relief of their widows, and which made each individual artizan feel himself as it were member of a family, necessitated some organization to fill the void thus left, and to provide for the material welfare of the artizan. It may not be out of place, in a Report intended to give information as to the position of the labouring classes in Wurtemberg, to give some account of the institutions and societies which exist, with a view of providing for their material prosperity.

With regard to the assistance afforded to the working classes in sickness:—The industrial laws provide that, where there are not Sick Clubs regularly organized, the proprietors of factories are obliged to establish special funds for assisting the sick, the workmen being obliged to contribute 1 kreuzer ($\frac{1}{3}d.$) out of every florin (1*s.* 8*d.*) they receive as wages. The system followed in this

country differs in so far from that adopted in Prussia that the proprietors are not bound by law to contribute to the Sick Clubs, whereas there they pay a certain proportion of their nett profits, amounting, I believe, to $\frac{1}{2}$ silver groschen in the thaler, or $\frac{1}{60}$.

Where, however, there is a considerable accumulation of working-men artizans, hospitals have been established by the communes, which are kept up by forced subscriptions from the workmen's wages, and which have, in many cases, considerable property inherited from the old guilds. They also furnish the artizans or factory hand with a certain allowance when he is, owing to ill-health, prevented from earning his livelihood: Burial Clubs are usually united with the above. When the Sick or Burial Clubs funds are established in large factories they are under the control of the director assisted by a committee of operatives.

Savings' Banks are established in many factories as well as those organized in the communes by Government and in the capital. Their system and regulations do not differ essentially from those of similar establishments in England.

The Society for the Promotion of the Welfare of the Working Classes has established in Stuttgardt a Refuge for Female Factory Operatives, which has proved most successful. The institution is occupied at present by eighty girls, under the superintendence of a matron. Each occupant pays 8*d*. a week for her lodging and the use of a bed, clothes chest, table, chair, &c., with light and firing. They are compelled to adhere strictly to the regulations of the establishment and be at home by a certain hour. The lowest rate of wages received by such factory girls being 4*s*. 8*d*. per week, they are enabled to spend 4*s*. on their food and clothing, and it is easy to imagine how far superior is their position to that of their companions, who, with the low wages they receive, have often no fixed lodging. The number of factory girls in Stuttgardt (not resident with their families) is about 1,000 out of a population of 70,000.

The Working Man's Union (Arbeiter Bildungs Vereine), for purposes of culture and recreation has also been established by the above Society, with a view of providing a place for working men to spend their

evenings and otherwise for their moral and technical improvement. It is managed by working men, who pay a monthly subscription of 4*d.*, and are afforded regular instructions in drawing, writing, book-keeping, and singing. Weekly lectures are also given on scientific and historical subjects, and political economy. Periodicals are taken in, and there is a library of 1,000 volumes. Entertainments are also occasionally given in order to form the taste for amusements of the working man. There are at present thirty-six such institutions with nearly 3,000 members. Some of them are not without political signification, and bear the name of "Democratic Unions."

In the same building at Stuttgardt is the "Consumverein," or Workmen's Co-operative Store, where workmen can purchase coals, victuals, clothes, &c., at a little above cost price. These institutions (of which there are sixteen in the large towns with 3,000 members) have met with great opposition from both wholesale and retail dealers, and have been compelled to make their purchases abroad. The opponents have even petitioned the Government on the subject, but of course without result.

A Labour Office, where artizans can for a fee of 1*d.*, and employers of 2*d.*, come into communication, is in very favourable operation; the fee is returned to the artizans should he not be in work through the institution. It was established under the auspices of the "Arbeiter Bildungs Verein" above-mentioned, and the "Gewerbe Verein," or Industrial Union (of employers), and the Committee is chosen by the members of the two bodies. There is a separate register kept for each trade, in which all applications for work by artizans, or for workmen by employers are entered.

The artizans' banks, the first of which was established in Stuttgardt in 1856, are seventy-one in number throughout Wurtemberg, and the extent of their transactions may be set at about 34,000,000 florins, or nearly 3,000,000*l.* sterling. These banks are a combination of a money dealing and a savings' bank, and their capital consists of stock contributed by the members (which they have the power to withdraw on certain conditions), as well as of money left on deposit. No single member

is allowed to hold more than 300 or, in some instances, 500 florins stock, and though a member may borrow up to the amount of the stock standing in his name, the advances may be made in amounts as low as 10 florins.

These institutions are founded on the principles of Herr Schultze-Delitsch, respecting whose system a full report has, I believe, been already forwarded to the Foreign Office by Her Majesty's Chargé d'Affaires at Darmstadt.

The Workmen's Proprietary Workshops, or Productive Clubs, by which workmen may, so to speak, become their own employers, and the "Industrie Halle," where articles manufactured by artizans are by them exposed for sale (a deduction of 5 per cent. being made on the selling price), are becoming very numerous.

Information as to the technical instruction afforded by the State in the various branches of industry would come more within the province of a report on the educational institutions and organization of the Kingdom, and, from the vast development of education in Wurtemberg, would necessitate considerable details hardly called for in a Report on the industrial classes.

With regard to the description of houses or lodgings generally occupied by the artizans and industrial operatives (a point specified in Lord Clarendon's Circular), I may state that, owing to the enormous extension of industry, and the increasing demand for labour, during the last ten years, the population of the towns is in constant process of augmentation. This has caused a great dearth of lodgings in many places, and has necessitated, in some of the larger towns, the construction of houses for workmen. The first which were established, in 1856, were situated in the suburbs of Neilbronn (one of the principal industrial centres of the Kingdom), and consisted of twenty houses, eight of which, termed first-class houses, cost 1,000 florins (83*l.*) each, the rent varying from 5*l.* to 5*l.* 16*s.*; while twelve houses, each cost 54*l.* to construct, and the rent is 4*l.* a-year. In 1861 twenty more houses were built in the same place, at a cost of 105*l.* for the first class, and 67*l.* for the second class houses; the rent was, however, not increased, in spite of the increased building expenses. The houses,

if situated in the manufacturing town above mentioned, would have to be rented 50 per cent. higher. The outlay for the ground on which twenty houses have been built was 67*l.*, and the eight first class houses are under one roof, the twelve of the second class being also in one building. Each house has, however, a cellar and door of its own, as well as a small garden, and is separated by side walls from the neighbouring house. They were built by a company, the shareholders being mostly manufacturers (the Corporation, as shareholder, has contributed 500*l.*), and not more than 4 per cent. is drawn on the money invested, while with the surplus fifty houses on the same system are being constructed. The workmen's houses in Stuttgardt are on the same system, but are three stories high. Each workman having a separate closed-in apartment. It is intended, however, to build others, the rents being calculated on a system, by which each occupant becomes, after a certain number of years, proprietor of his residence.

A few considerable manufactories situated in the country, and obliged to draw a great many of their workmen from remote villages, have erected houses for them. One large factory for cotton-spinning and weaving —that of MM. Staub—has established a "Cité Ouvrière," accommodating 800 workmen attached to the establishment. The machine manufactory at Esshingen, which is of growing importance, and produces yearly eighty locomotives, has up to the present time been able to lodge in that town all its working men, amounting to about 1,000.

The smaller artizans in country districts are, in general, possessed of houses of their own. Sleeping accommodation for an ordinary working man in the capital costs only 3 kreuzers (or 1*d.*) per night.

As to the description of houses occupied by the industrial classes, they correspond to the wants and customs of the country, and exhibit a certain amount of comfort. The complaints which are heard refer, not so much to the condition, as to the increasing rents of the lodgings. The rent of an apartment suitable for a working man and his family averages about 80 florins (or 6*l.* 15*s.*) a-year in Stuttgardt, 50 florins (or 4*l.* 4*s.*) a-year in country towns, and 40 florins (3*l.* 8*s.*) in

villages; and they are, probably, superior in comfort and cleanliness to a similar class of dwellings in England.

Wages.

The rate of wages of course differs materially in the several provinces, large and small towns, town and country; but taking the price of labour from a general point of view, the average rate of wages, calculated for working men and working women, at the two stages of age which are admissible to industrial labour, is found in the following Table; while the subsequent Table of wages specifies the rates in the respective branches of industry enumerated.

Workmen and Women from 14 to 18 *Years of Age.*

	Per Day.					Per Year.				
	d.		*s.*	*d.*		£	*s.*		£	*s.*
Highest	6	to	1	0		10	0	to	15	0
Lowest	6		0	8		7	10		10	0

Workmen and Women above 18 *Years of Age.*

	Per Day.					Per Year.				
	s.	*d.*		*s.*	*d.*	£	*s.*		£	*s.*
Men :—										
Highest	2	0	to	3	4	30	0	to	50	0
Lowest	1	4		1	8	20	0		25	0
Women :—										
Highest	1	2		1	6	17	5		22	10
Lowest	0	9		0	11	11	5		13	15

The above wages are to be considered as limits, within which the several rates vary, according to the locality and the ability of the operative. Workmen who earn 1*l.* and 2*l.* a-week are scarce, and such wages would be derived from "piece-work." The salaries of workmasters, overseers, &c., in workshops, factories, mechanical establishments, &c., vary from 42*l.* to 100*l.* per year.

TABLE of Wages in the various Branches of Industry at Different Periods, from 1830 to 1869.

I.—*Manufactories.*

	1830–39.	1840–49.	1850–59.	1860–69.	Per-centage of Augmentation.
	s. *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	
Cotton spinners	1 1½	1 3	1 5	1 10	65
Wool spinners	1 2	1 2	1 6	1 10	57
Cotton weavers	1 0½	1 1	1 4	1 8	60
Cloth manufacturers ..	1 1½	1 1	1 5	1 10	65
Goldsmiths	1 8	1 1	2 1	2 8	60
Pianoforte manufacturers ..	1 6	1 9	2 1	2 8	77
Japanned goods	1 6	1 11	2 4	2 6	66
Paper manufacturers ..	1 0	1 3	1 5	1 7	58
Printing	1 10	2 1	2 1	2 10	52
Chemicals	1 0	1 1	1 2	1 7	63
Carpet manufacturers ..	1 2	1 4	1 6	2 0	71
Cutlery or hardware ..	1 1	1 4	1 8	1 10	65
Silversmiths	1 10	1 11	2 4	3 0	61

II.—*Artizans.*

	1830–39.	1840–49.	1850–59.	1860–69.	Per-centage of Augmentation.
	s. *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	
Dyers	1 2	1 4	1 6	1 9	53
Tanners	1 2	1 3	1 5	1 8	51½
Masons	1 5	1 7	1 11	2 5	80½
Bricklayers	1 1	1 3	1 6	2 2	90
Carpenters	1 1	1 3	1 6	2 0	79½
Painters (house)	1 6	1 9	2 2	2 9	81
Blacksmiths	1 0	1 1	1 4	1 7	62
Locksmiths	1 1	1 2	1 4	1 8	65
Coppersmiths	1 1	1 3	1 9	1 9	65
Cutters	1 1	1 2	1 5	1 8	48
Tinmen	1 0	1 2	1 4	1 7	57
Tailors	0 10	1 0	1 4	1 5	65
Shoemakers	0 10	0 11	1 2	1 5	67
Saddlers	1 0	1 2	1 4	1 7	61½
Joiners	1 0	1 2	1 4	1 8	61½
Turners	1 0	1 1	1 4	1 6	51

III.—*Day Labourers. Open Air or on Roads.*

	s. *d.*
1830–39	0 10
1840–49	1 0
1850–59	1 2
1865	1 5
1869	1 11

It must not be forgotten in noticing the steady increase in wages since 1830, that in that year there existed but few manufacturing establishments; only about a dozen considerable linen, cotton, and cloth manufactories, 20 cotton and woollen yarn spinneries, 2 leather, 4 gold ware, 1 silver ware, 1 japanned tin, 3 earthenware, and 2 coach manufactories. Many branches of industry, for instance, the now so numerous machine manufactories and mechanical workshops, cigar manufactories, flax spinneries, were only established between 1840 and 1850; while there exist now no less than 91 cotton and woollen yarn spinneries, 26 leather, 34 gold and silver ware, and 8 coach manufactories.

The manufactories pay their workmen invariably in money. In the case of artizans, they are often boarded and lodged with their employers, the cost being deducted from their wages, and the estimate being made with regard to the prevailing price of necessaries. This custom is, however, now becoming obsolete, at any rate in the large towns, and exists only in the small country towns. It probably diminished with the abolition of the guilds, during the existence of which it was considered desirable to have workmen and apprentices in the master's house, and under his constant and immediate supervision.

In individual cases the wages in similar branches of industry in the same period vary essentially in different localities, which is, of course, to be accounted for by the demand, competition, and the cost of the articles manufactured. The skill, the physical and intellectual aptitude of the artizan, the relation between demand and supply in the labour market, and the personal expenses of the artizan, all also affect the rate of wages; but the above Tables may be taken as giving a very fair idea of the prevailing wages, which are generally, however, from 2*d.* to 4*d.* a-day higher in Stuttgardt than in other parts of the Kingdom, and slightly lower in the Danube district, the neighbourhood of Ulm, and what is called "New Wurtemberg."

It will be observed in the Table relating to manufactories, that the average increase in the rate of wages in eight branches of industry in the thirty years amounts to from 60 to 70 per cent.; falls in two cases to 60 per

cent., rises in one case to 77 per cent., and, in the case of printers, falls to 52 per cent. The wages of a compositor were, in 1830 (when the book trade was so thriving in Wurtemberg that the number of printing establishments had increased between 1829 and 1835 from 79 to 188), 2*s.* or 2*s.* 6*d.* a-day. It could not therefore be expected, in subsequent years, when there was a slight reaction, that they should increase in the same ratio as other branches of industry developed themselves.

Again, among the cotton-spinning establishments, in which the increase is quoted at 57 per cent., and those for paper-making (58 per cent.), there are some establishments which exhibit an increase of wages of 60 per cent. In the pianoforte manufactories the rise in wages is stated to be 77 per cent., which may be accounted for by the extraordinary development of this branch of manufacture, and the continued demand for skilled workmen, as well as by the increase in the cost of the necessaries of life, especially in the large towns, where such manufacture is alone carried on. In fact, it is hardly necessary to remark that, in all the above trades, especially in the gold, silver, piano, and japanned goods manufactories, individual operatives, whose work necessitates a high technical perfection, or a special amount of application and punctuality, receive wages exceeding the average as above stated.

With regard to the artizans, a steady increase of wages of dyers and tanners at the rate of 50 per cent. is observable. It is usual in these trades for the workmen to be boarded and lodged by their employers, and it is for the advantage of the former, as the deduction made, on this account, from their wages is hardly in accordance with the high prices at present prevailing.

Building trade. In the case of masons, bricklayers, carpenters, and painters, may be observed a remarkable rise in the rate of wages of 80 or 90 per cent., to be accounted for simply by the unusual activity in the building trade during the last twelve years, especially in the capital. The wages of a mason or bricklayer are at present 3*s.* to 3*s.* 4*d.*, and first-class workmen receive even more.

The relatively slight increase in wages in the hardware

and turnery trades is to be attributed to the depression which has long existed in these branches of industry, as well as to the limited technical progress made in them. Moreover, the establishments exhibiting this state of things are such as produce goods only of an ordinary quality. In the new establishments which produce a better class of goods, fine cutlery and surgical instruments on the one hand, and ornamental wooden or ivory goods on the other, wages exhibit a constant increase. In all other trades, locksmiths, blacksmiths, tinmen, tailors, shoemakers, saddlers, &c., the increase in the rate of wages has been from 60 to 70 per cent.

As a general average, 69 per cent. may be taken as exhibiting the increase in the daily wages for open air labour on the roads, and so forth. Here the ever-increasing demand for labourers, as well as the price of the chief necessaries of life, are most sensibly felt, and, consequently, the rates in different parts of the country vary considerably; in some cases having increased 50 per cent., in others as much as 90 per cent. Day-labourer's wages in the stonemason's trade in quarries, &c., have increased 100 per cent.

An idea of the social condition of the operative in Wurtemberg cannot, however, be formed from a mere statement of the wages received. It is therefore necessary to give some notion of the relative cost of the primary necessaries of life, in order to judge whether the considerable increase in the wages received by the working classes increases to a corresponding extent their well-being, and their power of obtaining the requirements of existence.

The following Table shows the prices of corn per scheffel* during the decennial period 1833–42, as compared with the decennial period 1856–65, as well as the prices of meat in Stuttgardt per lb.:—

* 1 scheffel equal to a little more than one-fifth of a bushel.

	Grain.	Rye.	Barley.	Spelt.	Beef.	Pork.	Veal.
	£ s. d	£ s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	d.	d.	d.
1833	0 17 8	0 12 9	11 4	7 10	2¾	2½	2
1836	0 15 9	0 10 7	11 3	6 9	2¾	2¾	2¾
1842	1 4 2	0 13 0	12 0	10 5	3	2½	2¼
Average price in the period ...	1 0 0	0 13 2	13 2	8 5	3	2½	2½
1856	1 11 0	1 1 0	17 4	12 5	4	4	3½
1859	1 3 0	0 15 0	17 0	9 6	4½	4¼	4
1865	1 1 6	0 15 0	14 10	9 0	5	5	3¾
Average price during the period	1 6 8	0 18 4	16 0	11 0	4½	4½	4
Rise per cent. during latter period, as compared with 1833-42	32	38	21	29	57	65	58

The prices in 1869 are about the same as in 1865, meat being about 1*d.* per lb. higher.

From this it will be gathered that the economical position of the grown marriageable operative has essentially improved during the last thirty-five years, and that, thus, the sustenance of a family is facilitated, while, in addition, the existence of manufactories, where women and children are enabled to earn wages, has greatly improved the social condition of the industrial classes. The facilities which the working man possesses of enjoying life are, in many respects, greater than in England. He is able to indulge in meat as a daily article of food; and even the poorest artizan eats sausage, if unable to procure fresh meat. White bread is still a luxury, and is seldom indulged in by the working classes; but black, or rye bread, which costs about 4 kreuzers (or 1¼*d.*) per lb., forms their habitual consumption. Very fair beer can be procured for 4 or 5 kreuzers (1¼*d.* to 1¾*d.*) a quart; not equalling English beer, it is true, in strength, but as good to the taste, and often purer than that for which the English working man pays 4*d.* a quart; moreover, two or three pints or more of it may be drunk without muddling the brain. A notion of the consumption of beer may be derived from the fact that about 220,000,000 bottles are, it is calculated, drunk in the country during the year, which would give about 130 bottles per head of the population, or about 380 bottles per year to each male above 14 years old; a very high rate for a wine-producing country. The number of breweries is 2,026, employing over 5,000 persons. The beer, which is inferior in strength and quality to that produced twenty years ago, rather owing to the high price of barley than to anything else, is, for the most part, brown beer, the white being only

consumed in Upper Suabia. In general, sobriety is the rule among the labouring classes in Wurtemberg; and where any drunkenness prevails, it is in the wine-drinking districts. The artizans exert, there is little doubt, in South Germany more control over themselves than the artizans in England, and beer is introduced with impunity into the working men's institutions, or clubs. Its use under such circumstances in England would, probably, lead to widely different results.

A fact worthy of remark, when considering the industrial classes in Wurtemberg is the anxiety shown by the operatives to save up their earnings, with a view of establishing a trade for themselves or becoming small proprietors. This probably proceeds from the thriftiness of the Suabian by nature and his desire to make himself independent of any accidental stagnation in trade or depreciation of the wages of labour and, though an important element for the well-being of the artizan individually, is productive of injurious effects as regards the attainment of great perfection in the various branches of industry; for no sooner does a workman become useful to his employer, owing to his techical knowledge of his business, than he is found to prefer giving up the considerable wages which he may be earning, in order to establish, careless of the risk he may incur, a trade for himself. But few weavers or spinners, in any part of the country, are without a scrap of land their own property and most factory operatives, as well as artizans in the small towns, are possessors of land however minute the quantity.

Children's labour is, owing to the obligation of attending school, only permitted with considerable limitations on the part of the authorities. The manufactories, in which children are employed, are for the most part spinning and weaving establishments, manufactories of straw hats, tobacco, combustibles. The produce of children's labour does not, however, play such an unimportant part in the native industry, when it is considered, how many thousand children are employed in industrial schools, as well as at their homes in knitting, lace-making, embroidery, &c., for manufactories. The most recent statistics available give about 1,400 male and nearly 3,000 female children under 14, as employed in factories a few hours a day.

Married women in factories are exceptional.

Girls over 14 are very numerously represented in weaving, printing, bleaching establishments and manufactories of glass and earthenware, sugar, silver and gold wares, chicory, &c.

The proportion between the wages of male and female operatives is above 18 years old, that of 66 to 34; below 18 years of age the wages of girls more nearly approach that of boys, the proportion being 55 to 45.

With regard to the nature of the agreements entered into between operatives and their employers (a point also specified in the Circular of the 30th April), I have made a translation of some Articles in the Industrial Law of 1862 bearing on this subject, as well as those referring to strikes or coalitions.

"In industrial undertakings carried on in closed establishments, where more than twenty workman are employed, with the assistance of steam or mechanical contrivances, or upon the principle of division of labour the following Articles are in force:—

Article 41. "In every factory valid regulations must be drawn up which are to be communicated to the workmen and which must comprehend the most important definitions of the mutual rights of workmen and employer, and the rules prescribed in the factory."

"These rules are binding on the relations between employer and workmen, in so far as they are not modified by mutual written agreement. A duplicate of all regulations must be furnished to the local authorities."

The 43rd Article regulates the mode of payment of the workmen in current coin of legal tender; it also forbids payment in kind of any description, unless at the distinct request of the workman. This regulation does not, however, preclude factory managers from boarding their operatives.

Workmen, it is added, even if they have accepted payment in any of the modes forbidden as above, can claim payment in the prescribed form at any time within three months.

Article 44. "The employment of school children and young persons under 18 years of age in factories can only be permitted, in so far, that they are not

hindered thereby from regular attendance at divine service and fulfilment of the obligation of attending school as prescribed by law, and that their corporal development and religious and moral education do not suffer by such employment."

The following relate to coalitions or strikes :—

Article 46. "Factory proprietors who, by threats of stopping work or turning off operatives not assenting to their demands, attempt, by a coalition, to force their staffs to certain acts or concessions, will, provided the execution of such coalition be already begun, be punished by imprisonment for a period not exceeding four weeks, and a fine not exceeding 300 florins."

Article 47. "Factory operatives who by agreeing or by a coalition to cease work or by the hinderance of one or more operatives from work attempt to force their employers to certain acts or concessions will, in the event of the execution of such coalition being begun, be punishable by imprisonment for a period not exceeding four weeks, and a fine not exceeding 30 florins.

Article 48. "The same penalty applies to a coalition entered into that on legal working days or during legal working hours or in certain industrial establishments no work shall be performed by any workmen, provided the execution of such coalition has already begun."

At the end of this report will be found a translation which I have made of "regulations for factory operatives" such as are in force at most of the manufactories in the country. They are contained in an Appendix to the "Industrial Law of 1862" and comprehend nearly all matters upon which disputes are liable to arise between employer and workmen. Arbitration is never resorted to in such cases as a workman can appeal for redress or advice to any magistrate or judicial authority without incurring any expense whatever. Disputes indeed but rarely arise and have been generally settled by agreement. Strikes are of very rare occurrence and the most important one which occurred in the tobacco manufacture recently, resulted in the workmen being replaced by female operatives.

Labour Market, &c.

But few labourers not being Germans are employed in Wurtemberg except in the construction of railways

which have recently afforded occupation to large numbers of Italians. They were not paid much higher wages than German navvies, and their frugal mode of living enabled them to save large sums of money, which they sent to their families.

English operatives rarely find employment in this country, owing to the high rate of wages demanded by them. When, however, any new branch of industry (in which English establishments excel) is set on foot, British labourers are engaged at a high rate of wages for a few months in order to set the manufacture going and to instruct the local operatives in the details of working. An Englishman is at present proprietor of a large crinoline manufactory at Göppingen (which produces yearly 300,000 of those articles). British subjects were also acting as overseers in a bleaching establishment at Blaubeuren, and in a brick manufactory at Wilbronn.

A gentleman who was for some time manager of copper and lead mines in the Black Forest informed me that he employed a rather considerable number of British miners, who were paid at the rate of 72 florins (6*l.*) a month, the native miners receiving only 25 florins (2 guineas) a month, in both cases eight hours' work, and his experience led him to consider that he got as much work out of the latter as out of the former. He described the English miners as superior when working on soft ground, owing to their greater powers of endurance and physical force; on hard ground, however, the system of working adopted by the native miners, viz., repeated strokes of the pickaxe on the same spot, was more efficacious and able to be kept up longer than the more violent mode of labouring practised by the English miners, which resulted, moreover, in considerable wear of the utensils. Their mode of living, moreover, was different; the Englishman consumed meat daily and spent at least 48 kreuzers (1*s.* 4*d.*), while the German lived well according to his standard for 24 kreuzers a day, or one-half. I should be inclined to state, from the information which I have received from competent persons, that owing to the high wages demanded by English workmen there is little or no opening for English labour in South Germany, except for high class operatives for short periods under the circumstances above stated,

namely, for the purpose of giving instruction in newly established branches of industry.

Since the close of the year 1868, when the prospects of peace became encouraging, trade may be said to have returned to its normal condition. No complaints are heard of the working classes being out of employ, and the labour market is in general in a satisfactory state. Even in 1866, when, owing to the effects of political convulsions, trade was in an unhealthy state, the employers were content to keep their workshops open merely in order to keep their workmen together, and they have been fully repaid for the sacrifices they then made. The only sore point is the woollen cloth manufacture (in which many hundred small artizans are engaged), which suffers from the competition of the Prussian and Belgian manufacturers, who, being excluded from the American market, overflow the markets of Southern Germany with their productions.

As to the cotton trade (in which the number of spindles has increased from 170,000 in the year 1862 to 269,000 in 1868, and the number of power looms from 2,500 to 3,500) there is some apprehension that overproduction may lead to a crisis, but, though suffering to some extent from the depression caused by the unsettled state of the cotton market, it still exhibits considerable vitality in that branch devoted to corset-making; the export solely to North America having amounted in 1868 to 210,000*l.*

Up to the present time no serious antagonism has exhibited itself between capital and labour; any demands on the part of operatives having been hitherto met by the employers in a conciliatory spirit, to the mutual satisfaction of both parties. The adherents of the system of Schultze-Delitzsch, who stand up for economy and productive associations, as yet outnumber the social democratic party, which demands political influence, and, at the very least, financial assistance on the part of the State; and the majority of small manufacturers, artizans, and handicraftsmen, who aspire ultimately to employ artizans of their own, are opposed to the principles of the latter party, as being likely to result in social disorders which might ultimately tend to impair their own interests.

In conclusion it may be stated that the entire

economical position of Wurtemberg differs widely from that of other industrial countries. The fact that a large proportion of the small artizans, the workmen in factories, and the agricultural labourers, are at the same time in possession of a small amount of landed property, acts as a great relief to the working classes in times of distress, or when trade is slack. Many thousands of weavers, for instance, are only in work five or six months during the winter, while in the summer they work on their own plots of land, or on farms. It would be necessary, however, to go into considerable details, not called for in this Report, to account fully for the present comparatively prosperous state of Wurtemberg industry, and therefore of the industrial classes. It may be pointed out, however, that the Wurtemberg industrial establishments are in general not on a large scale, and, as such, are not subject in the same way to fluctuations of the market, which affect manufacturers whose productions meet with the competition of countries more advanced in industry, and thus taking a lead.

(Signed) E. CONSTANTINE H. PHIPPS.

Appendix.

Project or Draft of Regulations for Factory Operatives, annexed to the new Industrial Law promulgated in the Kingdom of Wurtemberg, 1862.

Every workman employed in the workshop binds himself, by his entry therein, to strict adherence to the following regulations :—

1. The working hours, to which also those employed in piece-work must keep, are laid down as follows :—In summer (begin at) from A.M. to 12 o'clock ; from 1 P.M. to P.M. In winter (begin at) from A.M. to 12 o'clock ; from 1 P.M. to P.M.

2. Every hand must he in the workshop by such an hour that he can commence working at the moment fixed. Without special permission no hand can leave the workshop during working hours, and at the expiration

of the same must leave the workshop, unless special permission is obtained to remain.

3. The week-days from Monday to Saturday inclusive are working days. No hand can claim payment for time when not actually working. A deduction is made for any time wasted during working hours.

4. After days, during which the workman has become acquainted with the nature of his work, and the employer with the capabilities of the workman, the rate of wages will be settled by mutual agreement.

5. The employer undertakes to pay each hand in full every th day. Advances of wages are not granted.

6. It is the duty of every hand to be economical, as well as orderly in his conduct, and especially to abstain from running into debt.

The employer renders himself in no way responsible for debts contracted by the hands among themselves, or in lodging-houses, &c. Complaints on account of debts, &c., if often repeated, can involve the dismissal of the workman in question.

Smoking is forbidden in the workshops, as also the bringing of liquor, &c., at other than breakfast and supper hours, as also any noise or disputes, or visitors, or any work on private account, in the workshops.

Any hand intoxicated during working hours is liable to instant dismissal.

7. Every hand is bound to take care of all tools, &c., entrusted to him, to keep the same in good order, and to be answerable for the same according to the inventory made thereof. No copies, &c., to be made of drawings, models, &c., the property of the employer, without special permission, nor, above all, can any be taken away from the workshop. Any deviation from this regulation will be considered as an act of dishonesty, and, as such, will be punished by the competent authorities, and will involve in all cases the instant dismissal of the offender.

8. Every workman is bound to be excessively careful with fire and lights; any carelessness in this respect will be severely punished.

Every hand is specially bound to avert to the utmost of his endeavours any injury which may affect the property or the business of the proprietor.

In the case of a fire in the house, in the workshops, or in the neighbourhood, all the hands must place

themselves at the disposal of their superiors, and afford the assistance required.

9. In the event of any workman contracting a contagious disease, he must make a confidential communication of the fact to his employer, in order to avoid injury to his fellow-workmen, and that the necessary steps may be taken for his own safety.

10. All the hands are bound to become members of the public or private sick clubs.

11. The mutual time for giving warning is fixed at days. Work begun, must, if desired by the employer, be completed before the departure of the hand.

12. No hand can leave his situation until he has fully fulfilled his obligations to his employer.

13. Workmen are earnestly recommended to take part in the workmen's savings' banks, and compliance with this desire will be viewed with satisfaction.

Model or Draft of Articles of Apprenticeship. (*Industrial Law,* 1862.)

Between and the following agreement has been made:—

Article 1. M. undertakes, after a preliminary period of probation of weeks to take into his house, as apprentice, and to keep him during years in his house in this character. The apprenticeship begins on and ends

The master undertakes during that period the following:—

(1.) To teach the apprentice thoroughly his trade as ; and, if necessary, to have him taught by his workmen; also to employ him in other work than that appertaining to the above-mentioned trade, but only in so far as such work may not interfere with his technical education.

(2.) To board him, and give him a suitable sleeping-place in his own house.

(3.) To pay his washing.

(4.) To have his clothes mended.

(5.) To supply him with the necessary tools.

(6.) To treat him with kindness; but, on the other hand, to keep him in control; to cause him to attend Divine Service regularly on Sundays and feast days; as

also to attend the Sunday-school and the Sunday technical school, and to release him from all work on Sundays and feast days.

(7.) To permit him to attend an evening technical school ("Gewerbe Schule"), if such exists; also on week-days.

(8.) To have him properly attended in cases of sickness, and if such be serious at once to inform his father or guardian.

Art. 2. As the term of apprenticeship is now of longer duration than it used to be, the master binds himself during the last months of the term to pay wages to the apprentice; such wages not to amount to less than two-thirds of the wages received by an artizan of similar capabilities. If possible, one-half of such wages not to be paid down, but to be placed in a savings' bank in order that the apprentice may, at the expiration of his term, find himself in possession of a small sum of ready money.

Art. 3. For the above considerations the father or guardian undertakes to pay to the master a premium of .

Art. 4. Linen clothing and shoes to be supplied to the apprentice by .

Art. 5. The father or guardian undertakes to do his best to make the apprentice behave properly, work steadily, and learn his business.

(Signed)

No. 10.

Mr. Barron to the Earl of Clarendon.—(*Received January* 7, 1870.)

My Lord, *Constantinople, December* 28, 1869.

In compliance with the instructions conveyed in your Lordship's Circular of the 30th April last, I have the honour to transmit herewith seven reports prepared by Mr. R. Watson of this Embassy, and by Her Majesty's Consuls and Vice-Consuls at Monastir, Salonica, Aleppo, Broussa, Beyrout and Smyrna, on the position of the artizan and industrial classes in their respective districts.

From the great dissimilarity of the different provinces of this Empire, I have deemed that one report would be quite insufficient, and that it would be best to institute a separate investigation in each of the seven principal towns.

Being unable at present to devote time to these researches, I have devolved them to Mr. Watson. He has prepared an abstract, which appears as an inclosure in his Report of the six Consular Reports.

I have, &c.

(Signed) H. BARRON.

Inclosure 1 in No. 10.

Mr. Watson to Mr. Barron.

Sir, *Constantinople, December* 25, 1869.

ABOUT six weeks ago you assigned to me the task of furnishing the information required from this Embassy by the Earl of Clarendon's Circular of 30th April last, regarding the artizan and industrial classes of Constantinople. So far as permitted by the difficulties besetting the search after Turkish statistics, I have tried to carry out your instruction, and I have now the honour to communicate the result.

Ahmed Vefyk Effendi, the best, indeed the only native authority on such questions, informs me that the industrial population of this capital is so floating and variable as to make it most difficult for any one to lay down its numbers. The proportion of skilled workmen here at any one time is affected by passing circumstances. For instance, 6,000 masons or others were brought to the Bosphorus for the erection of the Sultan's palace at Tchiraghan.

I have obtained from Hassan Effendi, Assistant-President of the Municipality of the 6th Circle, which includes Pera and Galata, certain statistics that may be relied on, as to the proportion of the artizan classes in those districts, and that may perhaps be assumed to indicate, more or less, the proportion of those classes to the entire population in other districts of this large city.

There are in Pera and Galata 140 guilds ("esnaf")

which include about 13,500 persons, of whom there are nearly 4,500 Greeks, 3,200 Armenians, 500 Jews, the remainder being Turks and others. If the entire population of Pera and Galata be assumed to be 200,000 souls, the artizan classes, which, with foreigners of European origin, number about 22,000, form a proportion of about one-ninth of the mass.

In the year 1845, the census taken by Ahmed Vefyk Effendi showed the population of Constantinople, including its various suburbs on either side of the Golden Horn and the Bosphorus, to be, in round numbers, 1,060,000 souls. Ahmed Vefyk considers that, in the course of the last twenty-five years, the population has considerably increased, and the mere fact that the inhabitants of the capital are exempt from the liability of being selected for military service, would, to some extent, confirm this opinion. By the proportion of those of Pera and Galata some idea may be formed of the numbers of the artizans of the entire city and suburbs.

The dwelling-places occupied by the industrial classes are mainly of two descriptions—small self-contained houses, which are either occupied by one family or sublet to two or three; and large "odas" or "khans," inclosures containing a number of rooms, each occupied by a family or by a number of unmarried men.

The houses or odas in one quarter of the city are, so far as I can judge, similar to those of another; but the quarter in which their dwellings are situated must make a great difference in the relative health and comfort of different classes of the working men. Some districts frequented by them in the heart of Stamboul or in the ravines behind Pera are ill-drained and inaccessible, whilst others on the sloping ridges of the Bosphorus are within easy reach both of the open country and of the sea.

A separate house can seldom be obtained at a lower rent than 1*l.* 5*s.* a-month; an apartment of two rooms can be found at 16*s.* 8*d.* a-month.

I may describe one or two of the odas which I visited with Dr. Dickson, and which give a fair idea of the mode of life of the common industrial classes.

1. There are 150 lodgers. In a room, 12 feet by 15 feet, and 12 feet in height, lodge 5 men. The rent of the room is 10*s.* a-month. It contains scarcely any-

thing beyond bedding-quilts and three small boxes. Within the oda is a coffee-house, where pipes, coffee, and raki are to be found, and to which a barber is attached. There is likewise a shop where cabbages, onions, and lemons are sold, as well as bread, candles, and charcoal. The entire building is of wood,

2. The oda contains the means of lodging 350 persons. The master is a Turk. Of 36 rooms 29 are inhabited by Armenians and 7 by Mussulmans. The rooms, all of wood, are on two storeys. In the court-yard vines grow. There is in the centre a large tank. The oda contains a coffee-house and a kitchen. The lodgers have one meal a day, in the evening. The food now being prepared is soup, with pieces of meat in it, dolmas (leaves of cabbage stuffed), and beans. A quantity of cherries is being reduced to syrup.

Odas, or caravanserais, more or less similar to those I have mentioned, serve for the accommodation of the very large numbers of the industrial classes which are attracted to Constantinople from a distance. They generally leave their families behind them in the hope of realizing the means of returning.

The artizans born in Stamboul are, for the most part, married men, and occupy a portion of a small house. Until their marriage, that is during the period of their apprenticeship, they lodge beneath the roof of their parents.

The various races of men included within the city and suburbs of Stamboul are to a great extent separated from each other. There are Turkish and Greek and Armenian quarters; whilst more exclusive even than the Turks are the 40,000 Jews. These, in preference to the languages of the country, speak Spanish or German, their ancestors having taken refuge in Turkey from mediæval intolerance. Although the Jewish quarters are of the least wholesome in the city, the interiors of their houses are remarkably cleanly.

The nature of a Greek or Turkish artizan's engagements with his employer depends on the nature of his industry. For instance, shoemakers and saddlers are engaged by the piece; jewellers and tailors by the day or week.

The industrial classes of Constantinople are formed into "esnafs," or guilds, an institution which the Turks

are said to have borrowed from the Arabian Caliphs. Certain guilds are recruited from amongst men of one race only. Thus jewellers (in the various branches of which industry 30,000 were formerly employed), watch-makers, tailors, furriers, and men engaged in the working of silk are all Christians; whilst saddlers, seal-engravers and others are Moslems.

It has been the custom of the Ottoman Sultans to encourage and dignify industry by themselves professing some art or trade. Suliman the Magnificent was of the esnaf of valuers of precious stones; while the late Sultan Abdul Mejid turned to account his skill in ornamental caligraphy by causing his productions to be sold for charitable purposes.

The property of each guild is made "vakouf," that is endowed, so that it is secure from arbitrary seizure on the part of the authorities.

An artizan serves an apprenticeship of from three to five years, and in some cases of seven years. He is then a "kalfa," or companion, and receives wages from an "oosta," or master of a room. He becomes a master when he can afford to hire a room and engage journeymen.

The following are some of the industries pursued at Constantinople:—

Rope makers.
Sieve makers.
Nailsmiths.
Carders.
Pipe-mouthpiece makers.
Mirror makers.
Needle makers.
Gilders.
Cutlers.
Razor makers.
Engravers.
Carvers.
Wax manufacturers.
Pipe-bowl makers.
Cartwrights.
Towel makers.
Painters.
Designers.
Thread makers.
Weavers.
Tassel workers.
Steelyard and balance makers.
Scullcap makers.
Blacksmiths.
Tent makers.
Workers in earthenware.
Printers of chintz.
Embroiderers.
Paper manufacturers.
Glass ditto.
Confectioners.
Workers in chinaware.
Ditto in gold thread.
Ditto in tobacco.
Ditto of mats.
Tanners.
Workers in soap.
Bookbinders.
Coach makers.
Brush makers.
Cask makers.
Spoon makers.
Comb makers.
Belt makers.
Starch makers.
Quilt makers.

For the above items, and for much assistance in enabling me to frame this Report, I am indebted to Mr. Robert Casolani, Dragoman to Her Majesty's Embassy.

The rates of wages given to artizans are as follows :—

				s.	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	
To a shoemaker	..	..	from	0	10 to 2	6	a-day.
„ tailor ..	..	..	„	0	10 to 3	4	„
„ mason ..	..	..	„	1	0 to 3	0	„
„ workman in the arsenal		..	„	1	2		„
„ skilled ditto in ditto		..	„	2	0 to 5	0	„

The wages of the workmen employed in the arsenal are kept six months in arrears, but they can rely on continuous employment.

In the naval arsenal at Haskieni there are employed in constructing an iron-clad, from 70 to 80 English shipbuilders, each in receipt of 16*l.* a month, all having been engaged subsequently to January 1866. There are in the Sultan's service about 120 English engineers. Their shop rate of pay is 13*s.* a-day, to rise. Those of them on board of steamers receive from 18*l.* to 30*l.* a month, which latter sum is the pay of the chief engineer of an iron-clad. This line of employment is not expensive; new work only presents itself at rare intervals. Engineers wanted for new ships are engaged in England.

The working hours at Haskieni are nine hours a day in summer, eight hours a day for two, and seven for four months, in winter.

House-rent is seldom under 25*l.* a year, rising in some instances to 50*l.* Living is costly, and men are the more tempted to expend their earnings as there is no Post-Office Savings' Bank. Yet some engineers have saved considerable sums; one as much as 3,000*l.*

The other English artizans here, as far as I can learn, do not exceed twenty-five armourers, and others employed at the Ordnance Department, and about a dozen working on their own account.

Of members of other foreign nationalities there are employed in Constantinople in the following proportions :—

Austrians	8000	mixed.
Greeks (Hellenes)	5,500	artizans.
French	2 500	mixed.
Swiss, Romans, and Algerines (under French protection)	1,000	„
Italians	1,500	artizans.
North Germans..	106	„

With regard to the above figures it is to be observed that of the numbers given, only the Greeks, Italians, and North Germans are *bonâ fide* artizans, whilst of the Greeks many are not *bonâ fide* foreigners.

No list is kept at the French Consulate to show the trades of the Frenchmen whose names are registered there; and the French Consul informs me that few Frenchmen here have any fixed calling. They come prepared to take what work may offer itself.

It is estimated at the Municipality of the Sixth Circle, where books are kept on a European system, that the European artizans of Pera and Galata number about 8,500. These may be divided more or less as follows:—

North Germans (classified in the Consulate under 39 crafts)	106
Italians	1,500
Greeks (about one-tenth of the whole number) ..	1,000
Austrians (*i.e.*, Austrian subjects)..	5,000

French forming most of the remaining number.

Many Frenchmen are employed in the arsenal, and many in the fez-cap factory.

Of the Greeks 3,000 are shoe-makers; 1,000 cart-wrights; 500 tailors; 500 distillers; 100 watchmakers; 200 blacksmiths; and 200 jewellers or goldsmiths.

These include the Hellenic artizans of the entire city, by the data furnished me from the Hellenic Consulate.

From the inquiries which I have made in various quarters, I fear that there is not at the present moment any opening at Constantinople itself of which the skill and enterprise of the labouring classes of England might take advantage.

French, and Italian, and German skilled workmen have, on coming to Pera, a great advantage over Englishmen, in finding a large colony of their nation established

here, and their habits of life enable them to live more economically. An Italian workman here who earns about 4*l.* a month, can put by one-half of the sum.

Many causes combine to diminish day by day the call for labour at Constantinople. The depredations of the Koords on the Persian frontier, who drive the Armemians by thousands to the capital; the exaction of the tithe, and the demands for the conscription throughout the country districts, combine, with the growing appreciation of European as compared with native fabrics, to make labour a drug in the market.

As the object assigned by the Earl of Clarendon for such reports as this one is to indicate possible openings for British skill and enterprise, I beg to point to the possibility of producing certain English fabrics here rather than in England. Mr. Alison, when Secretary to this Embassy, was of opinion that nothing would be gained by the manufacturer in transferring the scene of production from Great Britain to Turkey.

It is my duty to draw attention to this point, as the increased demand throughout Turkey for European fabrics, and the increased supply here of raw labour, may have partly altered the conditions of the question since he wrote. It would require a longer time than that which has been assigned to me for inquiry to enable one to go into this question minutely.

From the six accompanying Consuls' reports, of which I inclose an abstract, it would appear that the only openings in the Ottoman Empire of which British skilled labour might take advantage depend on the geological exploration of some of the mineral districts of Turkey, and on the subsequent development of mining enterprise. Any opinion of value as to the extent to which this field might give a profitable return must be based on the surveys of professional geologists.

In proportion as the railway system throughout the Sultan's Empire becomes developed employment will likewise be given to an increased number of Englishmen thereon.

I may call attention to the observations in the accompanying report by the Vice-Consul at Broussa as to the opening which that thinly populated district presents for immigration, and I may add that a still fairer and

wider field for English colonization is, I understand, offered by the region bordering on the Black Sea between the Bosphorus and Varna, where, it is said, excellent arable land can be purchased at the rate of about 2*l.* an acre.

I have, &c.
(Signed) R. G. WATSON.

Inclosure 2 in No. 10.

ABSTRACT of Six Reports from Six of Her Majesty's Consuls in Turkey, on the Condition of the Artizan and Industrial Classes in their respective Districts.

Questions.	SYRIA.		ASIA MINOR.		TURKEY IN EUROPE.	
	By Consul-General at Beyrout.	By Consul at Aleppo.	From Consul at Smyrna.	From Consul at Broussa.	From Consul at Monastir.	From Consul at Salonica.
What proportion do artizans, &c., bear to other classes?	25 per cent. as regards Beyrout; less in small towns on the coast of Syria.	About 8·7 per cent.	80 per cent., including agriculturists.	From 10 to 12 per cent.	Population, 822,000; proportion of artizans not stated.	Population of Macedonia is 700,000. From 5,000 to 6,000 itinerant artizans come in winter from Albania.
What description of houses or lodgings do they occupy?	Of a poor description, suited only to natives of the country.	One room for a family, rented at from 4*s.* to 10*s.* a-month.	Usually 1 room.	Labourers for the most part own freehold houses, or merely pay free-duty.	1 room for a family of the lowest order of labourers; little attention paid to cleanliness; 2 rooms or more in case of artizans.	A single room, clean but unfurnished, with a verandah, for a family, in the country; in towns, two rooms furnished.
What is the nature of their engagements with their employers?	They are engaged by the day.	They are engaged generally by the piece.	By day, week, or year, or by the piece.	They are hired by the day, working in summer about 13 hours a-day, in winter 8 hours. Food is cheap. Their diet is of vegetables.	Artizans are in guilds, which exclude outsiders. Working hours are from sunrise to sunset.	
What are the rates of wages given to artizans?	Varying from 1*s.* to 3*s.* 6*d.* a-day.	It fluctuates; is generally 10*s.* a-week, or from 1*s.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* a-day.	4*s.* a-day, but work is very precarious. Wages are from 6*l.* to 12*l.* a-year, besides food, lodgings, and clothing.	Mason, 2*s.* 8*d.* to 3*s.* 4*d.* a-day. Carpenter, 3*s.* 2*d.* to 4*s.* 8*d.* a-day. Stone-cutter, 3*s.* 2*d.* to 5*s.* a-day. Cabinet-maker, 5*s.* to 6*s.* a-day. Blacksmith, 2*s.* 6*d.* to 4*s.* a-day. Tailor, 1*s.* 4*d.* to 1*s.* 10*d.* a-day. Shoemaker, 1*s.* 10*d.* to 2*s.* 2*d.* a-day.	Wages from 10*l.* to 12*l.* a-year. Joiner, 2*s.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* a-day. Carpenter, 1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* a-day. Mason, 1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* a-day.	Mason, 1*s.* 10*d.* a-day. Carpenter, 1*s.* 10*d.* a-day. Shoemaker, 2*s.* a-day. Tailor, 2*s.* a-day.
Does the labour-market present any openings for labour from without?	There is no opening for labour from without.	There is no opening for labour from without.	It does not present any opening.	Population is very sparse. It might be increased with benefit to the country. Were it added to, there might be room for foreign labour, but there is not any at present.	No opening, except to a limited extent for ironworkers who understand the repair of agricultural implements and machinery made in Europe.	No opening, unless for the working of iron and argentiferous mines and coal deposits. Climate unhealthy.

Inclosure 3 in No. 10.

Report by Consul Calvert upon the Position of the Artizan and Industrial Classes in the Consular District of Monastir.

Monastir, November 23, 1869.

The Sandjak of Monastir, comprising the ten Cazàs of Monastir, Perlépé, Kiuprili, Tikvesh, Florina, Kozana, Serfidjé, Kesréyé, Gheortcha, and Nassilitch, is computed to contain a mixed population of about 822,000 souls, 536,000 Christians, and 386,000 Mussulmans, one-fourth of whom may be reckoned as adult males, between the ages of 18 and 50.

The chief pursuit of the population is agriculture, which absorbs three-fourths or more of their numbers. The remaining fourth is made up of the trading, industrial, and day-labouring classes, landed proprietors, and persons of no occupation, who, however, are comparatively few in number.

The trading classes conduct their operations in the towns, and are composed of merchants, money-lenders, and retail shop-keepers, who are not manufacturers. Of the industrial classes, part exercise their calling in the towns where they are formed into Corporations; these generally possess or hire shops and places where they work; the other part and large numbers of day labourers leave their homes for periods of six to twelve months at a time, and even longer, in quest of work in other parts of the Empire. Those who are in the habit of thus absenting themselves are known by the name of "gourbetchis;" there are constantly several thousands of them away at a time in continued succession. They are for the most part, Christians, and all men and boys.

In the Nahiyé of Resna and Prespa, which may be assumed as an example, out of an adult male population of about 6,000 Christians, there are ordinarily 1,600 to 2,000 absentees. They generally leave their homes in February and March and return in October, bringing with them their earnings which, in fortunate seasons, may amount to 25*l.* or 30*l.* a-head. The average earnings are 12*l.* Resna sends out chiefly gardeners, hucksters, and day labourers, all of whom resort to Constantinople and its neighbourhood, and some of them occasionally go on as far as Varna.

Prespa furnishes carpenters, sawyers, masons, hucksters, hawkers, and day-labourers. Their favourite field is the country on either side the Straits of the Dardanelles and the Sea of Marmora. They sometimes hire land and cultivate cotton or other products.

In like manner "gourbetchis" leave their homes from nearly every part of this sandjak. A sufficient number of men is left to cultivate their lands during their absence, since there are but very few houses which do not possess at least one pair of oxen for agricultural purposes, and some have as many as four pair; whilst mutual arrangements are entered into with respect to the cultivation of one another's land. The women spin wool, weave both wool and cotton, and make the stuff into clothing for the men and themselves; they also help at reaping and other field work. All the Christian women are remarkably industrious and thrifty.

The tradespeople and artizans who inhabit the towns possess fields and vineyards, and often houses their own property. The fields are cultivated by "ortakdjis," who are a kind of partner labourers. The ortakdji undertakes all the labour and cost of cultivating a piece of land, and he halves with the owner the produce reaped, threshed, and winnowed. When the landowner furnishes the seed and the oxen for ploughing, the ortakdji retains only two-fifths of the produce for his share.

Most of the artizans working in shops or establishments employ one or more apprentices and journeymen. The apprentices, whose engagements are renewable every six months, are boarded and lodged, but receive no wages; only occasionally a new pair of shoes or a new cap as a present from their master. The journeymen are generally engaged by the year or half-year; their wages range between 10*l.* and 20*l.* a-year, out of which they have to find their own bed and board. There are other journeymen artizans who work by the day or do job-work; their earnings are precarious; as sometimes they are glad to get 4*d.* or 6*d.* for their day's work, whilst at other times they may earn 1*s.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* a-day.

The following scale of wages may be assumed as the average during the summer and winter months:—

	Summer.	Winter.
	s. *d.*	*s.* *d.*
Joiner	2 6	2 0
House carpenter .. .	2 0	1 6
Bricklayer		
Mason		
Unskilled labourer	0 10	0 8
Male reapers (besides as much bread as they can consume) . ..	1*s.* 4*d.* to 2*s.*	..
Female reapers (besides their bread)	8*d.* to 1*s.*	..
Vinediggers	1*s.* to 1*s.* 4*d.*	..

All the above find their own tools.

The summer season reckons from the festival of St. George (April 23, o.s.) and the winter season from the festival of St. Demetrius (October 26, o.s.) The working day is from sunrise to sunset, half-an-hour being allowed for breakfast, and an hour for dinner during the summer. In winter only an hour is allowed for the two meals.

Agricultural labourers may be divided into three classes, all of whom are Christians, namely :—

1. Partner labourers, or "ortakdjis," already alluded to. They provide the cattle and undertake the labour and cost of cultivating the land of the owner of a farm, or "tchiftlik," the landlord finding the seed. The produce is halved on the threshing-floor, after which the "ortakdji's'" part of the engagement is completed by his further carrying the landlord's share to the granary. Some landlords require extra labour from their "ortakdjis" which is given on holidays ; such as bringing their produce to market, or drawing firewood ; as a set-off for such services the landlord grants the "ortakdji" the use of about half an acre of land, rent-free ; this arrangement is called "paraspour." In cases where the landlord cultivates part of his estate by means of farm-labourers, the "ortakdji" and his family help to reap, for which service they get the usual allowance of bread, but no wages. They pay no rent for their cottages, the repairs of which, as of their stables, are at the charge of the landlord.

2. Farm-labourers, or "ter-oglan," who are engaged by the year, and work entirely for account of the landlord. In lieu of wages they receive a stipulated quantity

of grain and other necessaries, which varies with the locality. For instance, in the district of Monastir, the allowance is 15 to 17 killos, part Indian corn and part rye (68½ to 77½ English bushels), and in cash 100 piastres, (15*s.* to 17*s.*, according to the fluctuations of the currency); whilst in the district of Perlépé the allowance is simply 16 killos of wheat (73 bushels), and in that of Kiuprili the landlord gives the farm-labourer 10 killos of rye, barley, and millet (45½ bushels), besides 12 okes (33½ lbs. of salt, half an ox-hide for sandals, half a horse-load of leeks or cabbages, and 60 to 80 piastres in money (9*s.* to 12*s.* or 13*s.* 6*d.*); sleeping-room rent-free. The same system, with slight local variations, prevails throughout the other districts of this Sandjak.

3. "Kesemdjis." It is difficult to find the English equivalent for this term. The nearest approach to it is "fixed-charge-men," who resemble the "ortakdjis" in every respect except the division of the produce, since they agree to give the landlord a certain fixed quantity of produce irrespective of the yield.

All who belong to these three classes of farm-labourers are free, on the completion of their agreement with one landlord to engage themselves to another, provided they have contracted no debts to the landlord. In such a case their position becomes one of quasi-serfage, especially when their creditor landlord, as not unfrequently happens, if he be a Mussulman, adds compound interest to the capital advanced, by which process a debt of a few pounds swells, in course of time, to such large proportions as to involve the labourer in difficulties from which the toil of a lifetime fails to extricate him. In not a few instances the debt becomes hereditary. It is not an uncommon practice for a landowner when in want of farm-labourers as fixtures upon his estate, to hire one of these unfortunate men, whose debt he pays to his former employer, and in turn becomes his creditor. All this while the labourer receives a stipulated quantity of grain in return for his work; but if his employer, in whose power he is, drives a hard bargain with him, and he happen to be burdened with a large family, the whole of his allowance scarcely suffices to keep them and himself in food, not to speak of clothing and other necessaries. Considerable numbers of this miserable class, chiefly of the gipsy race, are to be seen in the district

of Kiuprili, where they are recognized by their scanty clothing, starved appearance, and dejected looks—truly pitiable objects.

It is impossible, for the present at least, to form even an approximate estimate of the number of agricultural labourers. They constitute a very important section of the population of this country. In the above division into classes they stand in the order of their relative numerical proportion.

A feature of the labouring classes which deserves special notice is, that with the exception of the indebted farm-labourers, both men and women are well clothed. Their shirts and drawers are manufactured at home, of cotton-twist (from England) which the women weave into substantial cloth. Their outer clothing is of stout, black or brown woollen stuff, which, as well as their thick woollen socks, is also home-made. The head is protected by a woollen, red skull-cap, over which the men twist a white or black cotton turban. The females' head-dress is also warm, and over it they wear a white cotton kerchief fastened round the neck and bosom. The women's cotton clothing is elaborately embroidered in brilliant colours with home-dyed wool. Sandals of raw buffalo-hide are worn on working-days, and those who can afford the luxury wear red leather shoes on holidays. There are few who have not a holiday suit that lasts them their lifetime. In winter the men wear sheepskin overcoats with the wool inside.

The Christian industrial classes keep the festivals of their church most strictly; so that, reckoning Sundays, there are more than one hundred days in the year on which they voluntarily cease from work.

The dwelling-houses of the labouring classes are built of sun-dried squares of clay, with chopped straw to bind it; wetted clay mixed with chopped straw is used as cement. The foundations are composed of stone rubble, and are carried to a height of 12 to 18 inches from the surface of the ground. On the stone layer, which is likewise cemented with clay and straw, the sun-dried bricks are laid; at certain prescribed intervals the walls are bound by rough hewn strips of wood,—oak, beech, or pine, according to circumstances,—which are laid in parallel rows along the outer and inner edges of the rising wall, and held together by means of cross

pieces fastened to them by iron nails. The pent roof is almost invariably tiled. In some localities slabs of a kind of cross-grained slate or shale are used for the purpose; these being heavy, the rafters which support them require to be proportionately strong, and consequently this style of roofing is considerably more expensive than the light kiln-baked gutter tiles. The house rarely consists of more than one room, in which the labourer and his family dwell together. The dimensions of the single room vary between 15 by 15 feet, and 12 by 10 feet superficial, and the height 8 to 10 feet from floor to ceiling. There is always an open fireplace nearly level with the floor; it is provided with a flue for carrying off the smoke. The one or two windows are very small, are never glazed, but are closed with a wooden shutter, which, when open, lies within the thickness of the walls. In the walls, which are 30 to 36 inches thick, are left two or more recesses fitted with shelves; and all around the inner walls near the ceiling there is a narrow wooden shelf. Wooden pegs stuck into the walls serve to support a variety of articles. The walls are plastered within with clay, and whitewashed. The floor is of hard clay, overlaid with course rush matting in the places where the inmates sit or sleep in winter time. During the summer they prefer sleeping in the open air, or under a sort of verandah, with which some of the houses are provided. The material of which the walls are made, their great thickness, small windows and door, all contribute to keep the interior warm during the winter. A chip of resinous wood serves as light, although light is not long required, since the habit is to retire very early to rest and to rise shortly before daylight. The labourer and his family sleep on the floor, either upon the rush mats or else upon goats' hair sacking. For bed covering they use either a coarse woollen blanket or else their woollen overcoats. All sleep in the clothes in which they have done their day's work. But little attention is paid to cleanliness beyond occasionally sweeping the floor. Those who can afford the expense provide themselves with a copper stew-pan; but for the most part an earthenware pan or pot, costing 2*d.* to 3*d.*, is their only cooking utensil. The meal of the day,—labourer and peasant,—is composed of a dish of stewed beans or

entils, which, with the addition of onions or leeks, salt pickled cabbage and green peppers, and garlic and red pepper as a condiment, are eaten with the half-baked brown bread of mixed grain—maize, wheat, barley, or oats in varying proportions—which constitutes the staple of their food. Very many of the labouring classes subsist entirely upon bread, of which they are capable of consuming 4 lbs. or 5 lbs. a day. Olive, hempseed, linseed, and sesame oils, salted cheese, and other preparations of milk, are likewise occasionally eaten. Meat, wine, and spirits are taken habitually only on festival days. New milk is never used as an article of diet by the Christians, from a belief that it induces intermittent fever; the Mussulmans, however, who have no such prejudice against it, consume milk freely.

The house described above is one of the very lowest order. If a labouring man has been at all prosperous, he may have two or more rooms to his house, besides stabling for live-stock and out-houses for fodder. The average cost of a house built of sun-dried bricks is about 25*l.* per room. The skilled workmen and artizans who have their homes in the larger villages and in the towns are generally provided with more comfortable and better furnished houses. The ground floor, with two or more rooms and a passage between them, is built of stone rubble laid in lime and sand mortar; the upper floor is composed of a frame of woodwork, the interstices of which are filled in with sun-burnt bricks, and plastered within and without either with clay whitewashed or else with lime and sand stucco. The floors and ceilings are planked, and the windows glazed. There are fire-places only in the lower rooms which the family live in during the winter. Of this kind of house, with rooms varying in number from two to twelve, the towns in Turkey are mostly built. Only the best class of houses are provided with a regular kitchen, the food being generally prepared either on the fire-hearth in one of the rooms, or else sent out in pans to the bakehouse. In no no other country, perhaps, do the labouring classes voluntarily stint themselves of food to the same extent as those of Macedonia. Even among the better classes the most rigid economy is practised in housekeeping. This is especially the case with the Christians. The Mussulmans, on the whole, live more comfortably than

the Christians. They are, however, less industrious and thrifty in their habits. The skilled artizans amongst them are apt to set an exaggerated value on the produce of their labour. For instance, a Mussulman who could with ordinary diligence complete a given piece of work in one day, will charge three days' work and occupy that time in doing it leisurely.

It will be gathered from the foregoing observations, with regard to the "gourbetchis," that there is no opening for labour from without, this country being the market from which labour is supplied to other parts of Turkey.

It should be noted that during the winter months, when the demand for labour is slack, distress prevails to some extent among the day labourers. In that season numbers of persons, chiefly Christians, flock into the towns from the villages, and thus further increase the distress already existing among the poorer classes of the town population. Public charities are exceedingly limited in their extent, as they depend entirely upon the small collections made in the churches for the benefit of the Christian poor, and amongst the Mussulmans and Jews, of scanty funds raised by their respective communities. There is, moreover, no provision made for the sick poor by any of the communities, not even a dispensary.

The artizans, who exercise their callings in shops or establishments in the towns, are formed into corporations, called "esnaf," who have their laws and regulations, which are calculated rather to protect their own trade from competition than for the relief of any particular member who may happen to be thrown out of work through sickness or other cause, although they each possess a small fund to which the members subscribe. These trades' corporations are the jealous and most virulent enemies of foreign artizans who attempt to exercise their calling independently of them.

With but few exceptions, the industrial arts exercised on the spot belong to a very low order of skill. The economical, and even parsimonious, habits of the people, who are satisfied with an inferior article, provided they can procure it cheap, offer little or no encouragement to the manufacturers to aim at perfection, or even to

attempt any improvement, in the various branches of skilled industry.

The sole opening for skilled labour from without, that is to say, from Europe, which suggests itself at the present moment—and even that promises to be of limited extent—is for ironworkers who understand the repair of agricultural implements and machinery made in Europe. Several landowners have expressed the opinion that the only impediment to the introduction of ploughing, reaping, and threshing instruments and machines into this country consists in the present impossibility of having them properly repaired, so as to ensure their constant efficiency.

(Signed) CHARLES J. CALVERT.

Inclosure 4 in No. 10.

Report by Consul Wilkinson upon the Position of the Artizan and Industrial Classes in the Consular District of Salonica.

Salonica, September 13, 1869.

The settled population of the Province of Macedonia may be approximately estimated at 700,000 souls, of which the four-fifths are employed in agriculture. In winter the population is augmented by the addition of from 5,000 to 6,000 itinerant artizans, who quit their native mountains in Central Albania, and distribute themselves all over the province in quest of employment. They usually make their appearance in November, and return to their homes in May. The rest of the population consists of merchants, tradesmen, shopkeepers, artizans, and unskilled labourers. The houses of the rural population inhabiting the great alluvial plains watered by the Rivers Vardar and Strymon are, for the most part, built of sun-dried bricks and wood, and covered with tiles. They usually consist of a single room, with a sort of verandah in front, where the family sit and sleep in summer. The windows, which are very small, have no glass, but are shut with sliding boards. The interior

of the room is carefully whitewashed, and clean, but contains no other furniture than a few home-made rugs, and some cushions filled with either straw or wool, which are piled up in a corner during the day, and spread out at night for the inmates to sleep upon. One or two wooden shelves support the family copper kitchen utensils, and some common crockeryware. Tables, chairs, and bedsteads, if not quite unknown to the occupants, are never used by them. In the hilly districts, where stone and lime are easily procured, the houses are more substantially built, and consist of two, and sometimes three rooms; but the furniture, or lack of furniture, is the same as already described.

The dwellings of the artizan and industrial classes who live in the towns and large villages are, generally, more comfortable; they have glazed windows, and are furnished with chairs, tables, and bedsteads.

In the rural districts labourers are generally employed in weeding and picking cotton, and in gathering grapes during the vintage. If a husbandman wishes to settle on a farm the proprietor gives him a cottage, and allots to him a portion of land proportionate to his capabilities, and likewise supplies him with such seed as he may require. The husbandman, on his part, furnishes the cattle and agricultural implements, and the produce, after deducting the tithe, and the seed necessary for the next sowing, is divided equally between them. In the seaport towns unskilled labourers find employment as porters, and in discharging and loading ships.

The following Table shows the average rate of wages paid to artizans, industrial labourers, &c.:—

		s.	*d.*
Agricultural labourers	per day	1	8
Masons	„	1	10
House carpenters	„	1	10
Shoemakers	„	2	0
Tailors	„	2	0
Unskilled labourers	„	1	6

Owing to the absence of the itinerant artizans already referred to, the rate of wages paid during the summer months to masons and house carpenters is considerably higher than in winter; likewise unskilled labourers, both at Salonica and at the other ports on the sea-coast,

receive much higher wages than those living in the interior of the province.

Everything considered, this province presents no opening to labour from without; and although there is no skill whatever displayed in the industry of the inhabitants, it must be borne in mind that the wants of the peasantry, who constitute the great majority of the population, are so simple, and easily satisfied, that none is required.

The principal industries of the people in this province are the rearing of the silkworm, and domestic weaving of coarse cotton cloths; both of which are done by the women.

There are iron and argentiferous mines, and extensive coal deposits in this province; but mining industry is not profitable, and is, consequently, entirely neglected. The ignorance of the people in working the mines with economy may be set down as the chief cause of such neglect. If foreigners were to undertake to work them they should be prepared to meet with opposition and enmity from the Mohammedan population, who regard with a jealous eye every industrial enterprise undertaken or promoted by foreigners, and who endeavour by every means in their power to throw impediments in their way. To this feeling, which is also shared by the authorities themselves, may be traced the ill-success of all the industrial enterprizes undertaken by foreigners in this country. Besides the ill-will of the Turks, and the insecurity to life and property which is the consequence, foreign immigrants, and more especially those bent on agricultural pursuits, would have to encounter and contend against a greater and most serious evil—I allude to the unhealthiness of the climate. Wherever the soil is most productive there it is also that intermittent fever mostly prevails. The natives themselves are not spared; and the number of sufferers from it during the summer months, especially after a wet spring, is often very considerable.

(Signed) RICHD. WILKINSON.

Inclosure 5 in No. 10.

Report by Vice-Consul Maling on the Position of the Artizan and Industrial Classes in the District of Brussa in the Year 1869.

Brussa, November 24, 1869.

AUTHORITATIVE data are wanting for ascertaining, with any approximation to accuracy, the proportion of the population engaged in the mechanical arts, as compared with the population in general.

But from such estimates as can be drawn, it is not to be doubted that but a small proportion, certainly not more than from 10 to 12 per cent. of the population, follows such industrial employments as commonly require technical education and ability; and even in this estimate must be comprised many whose rude and imperfect acquirements scarcely entitle them to be ranked as skilled labourers.

With the exception of the silk masters, there are no employers of skilled labour on a large scale.

Some of the largest silk masters employ about 300 hands in their filandas or factories, in which the raw silk is wound off, or reeled from the cocoon. In the district there are about 6,000 reels, which give employment to about 9,000 factory hands, all females, with very few exceptions, and chiefly non-adults. The raw silk spun at Brussa is in very high estimation for the regularity and evenness of the thread made by the native workers, under the direction of French spinners; and the result shows to what a high point of manual perfection native skill, under proper training, can reach.

Weaving, whether of silk, cotton, or wool, is altogether a domestic art; and where it does hold its ground, it is scarcely needful to say that it has never reached beyond the phase of the hand-loom system. Embroidering is also a household industry, which, like weaving, is fast declining.

In all other trades it may be said, as a rule, that the employer of labour is a mere master-worker, who has two or three journeymen and an apprentice, or so, at the most.

Engagements between employer and worker are simply "a day's wages for a day's work;" for although in

some trades it is usual to enter into verbal articles by the month, there is no law to enforce the observance of such agreements, whether oral or written; and both employers and servants profess and practise a sovereign contempt for any engagements binding merely on honour or conscience.

Generally speaking, in this country, where population is scanty, and there is no accumulated capital seeking investments in land, the working man is owner of his dwelling-house, in some cases as a freehold, but more generally held by a limited tenure from the administration of the Church lands ("Vacoufs"), which engrosses the fee-simple of such a large portion of the country. Not unfrequently, nay, pretty generally, in the rural parts especially, the workman also owns a few acres of land, which his family cultivates. The ownership of a dwelling, and not unfrequently of a piece of cultivated land, help to make up the workman's resources; and these adjuncts to his daily earnings as an artizan must be borne in mind in order to arrive at a correct appreciation of his position, and of the conditions under which the operative classes exist.

The dwelling of the artizan has very little in common with that of the same class in England, either in its construction, or in its arrangements as to comfort. It is for the most part a one-storied building of sun-dried bricks, or, when of a more pretentious character, a wood-framed building, filled in with lath and mud-plaster, and in nowise calculated to shelter the inmates from either heat or cold. Indeed, the houses of the better classes in the provinces are in most respects but little improvements on the mere workman's dwelling. All internal and domestic comforts which endear his home to the English working man are wanting. Furniture of any kind is only remarkable by its absence. The native working man cannot generally be taxed with uncleanliness in his person or habits, and his helpmate is generally a tidy, careful, and thrifty housewife; but his dwelling, by faulty construction, and ignorance, or carelessness, of the commonest sanitary principles, is far from being healthy. On the other hand, as most trades are carried on in the open air, the insalubrious tendencies of the workman's dwelling are counteracted by the healthiness of his avocations, and the standard of health is higher than

would be otherwise inferred. It must, at the same time, however, be admitted that disease is under no control, and ignorance, and reliance on quackery at such times, make an unjustifiably high death-rate among the working as amongst the other classes in this country.

In the building trades (the masons and house carpenters, who constitute a numerically large proportion of the operative classes), there is a large body of workmen, natives of the rural parts, who are very migratory in their habits. They are chiefly natives of the Epirus and hilly countries of Roumely, are a hardy, enduring and thrifty race, and only visit their families at rare intervals. In summer the open air is their only habitation at all hours; and in winter they crowd into a wretched room in a khan, where the bare plank and a rough capote is their only bed.

A working day is reckoned from sunrise to sunset, with one or two short intervals for meals. In summer the working day may be called of thirteen hours', and in winter of eight hours', duration. Though the hours of labour may seem long, it must be borne in mind that the labourer in the East is not much given to overtask his proper strength, but the contrary, and that his avocations are generally of a light and healthy nature. In the silk works, however, it must be admitted, that a long summer day's work, in the heated and vitiated air of a factory, is not favourable to the healthful physical development of young persons. And it is a matter for regret that the young females in these establishments contract habits of improvidence, and dissipate in finery and extravagance the wages earned by the sacrifice, to a great extent at least, of health. Factory labour has great attractions for the young female classes, and is much preferred by them to field work or domestic service.

The ruling rates of earnings of the industrial classes are:—

	s.	*d.*		*s.*	*d.*	
Marble workers	5	0	to	5	4	per day.
Stone cutters	3	2		5	0	„
Masons	2	8		3	0	„
Plasterers	3	0		4	0	„
House carpenters	3	2		4	8	„
Joiners	4	0		5	0	„
Cabinet-makers	5	0		6	0	„
Quarrymen	2	8		3	6	„

	s.	d.		s.	d.	
Miners	1	0	to	1	6	per day.
Machinists	4	6		6	0	„
Master blacksmiths	2	6		4	0	„
Journeymen ditto	1	6		2	2	„
Master whitesmiths ..	3	0		4	6	„
Journeymen ditto	2	0		3	0	„
Coppersmiths	1	6		2	0	„
Brass-founders	1	3		1	9	„
Tinners	1	6		2	0	„
Gunsmiths	1	8		2	4	„
Silversmiths	2	0		2	6	„
Saw-makers	1	4		1	10	„
Horse (master) shoers ..	2	6		3	6	„
Journeymen ditto	1	0		1	6	„
Saddlers	1	2		1	10	„
Painters	2	0		2	4	„
Tanners	1	9		2	0	„
Dyers	1	4		1	8	„
Coopers	1	0		1	5	„
Tailors	1	4		1	10	„
Shoemakers	1	10		2	2	„
Butchers	1	2		1	10	„
Bakers	1	4		1	10	„
Gardeners	32	0		40	0	per month,
Millers	60	0		..		„
Brickmakers	40	0		50	0	„
Potters	24	0		31	0	„
Hand-loom weavers ..	1	4		1	9	per day.
Embroiderers	0	8		1	0	„
Silk-spinners (girls) ..	0	8		1	0	„
Ditto (forewomen)	1	6		2	0	„
Felt-makers	1	2		1	6	„

The remuneration of skilled labour, though higher here than is general in Turkey, may appear low when referred to the standard of wages in other countries, but it must be remembered that the workman has very often some other resources, such as a rent-free dwelling and a bit of land, which help to swell his income. Again, the cost of the necessaries of life is generally lower than in countries more advanced, and the labouring man's dietary is chiefly vegetable, and therefore of the least costly nature. Considering the native workman's primitive wants and habits he earns very fair wages, and sufficient to maintain him after his own ideas of comfort. It is true he has to bear the weight of taxation most unfairly, for, however low in the social scale, he has no exemption from fiscal burdens, not even excepting income tax; and though certain improvements in adjusting fiscal liabilities have taken place, it is still evident that

the weight of taxation falls on those least able to bear it.

In such a thinly-peopled country as Asiatic Turkey it would be paradoxical to state that the labour market, in any of its ramifications, is over-stocked. Indeed, it must rather be said that the want of labour to cultivate the soil is much felt; but still, on the other hand, in the undeveloped state of the mechanical arts, skilled labour is little in request, and the supply is fully equal to present requirements.

Of late years considerable stimulus has been given to the labour market in those branches connected with the building trades by the public works in progress; that is to say, the restoration of the mosques and other religious establishments. A large amount of expenditure has been incurred under this head to the utter neglect of works of remunerative utility. But, apart from this stimulus to certain trades, the condition of the Province in general, owing to the great falling off in the staple trade in silk, is not such as to hold out any prospective demand for skilled labour.

Owing to its proximity to the capital, and the capacity of the metropolis for absorbing the surplus labour of the adjacent districts, the price of labour of all kinds is somewhat above the average standard of the country. Still, however relatively high the value of skilled labour may be, it is still so far beneath the wages rate of the operative classes in England that the English workman would not even obtain a standing equivalent in nominal resources to his own by accepting the position of the native operative; while, from their widely different habits and wants, the wages which form a fair competence for the native artizan would hardly maintain the English operative above starving-point. The latter's workmanlike superiority would not give him any advantage over the native worker; for in the present state of the public taste and wants, cheap and inferior labour is preferred. The English artizan, too, in the East will always meet with formidable competitors in the natives of those countries of Southern Europe which lie in more immediate proximity to Turkey, who much more easily assimilate themselves to Eastern ways and habits, and who can live on much lower wages than the Englishman. Inferior to the latter in any special mechanical art, they possess a

much greater degree of versatility and capacity for adapting themselves to circumstances, and are thus much better fitted to succeed in a country where special qualifications are not appreciated, and where it behoves the workman to be somewhat of a jack-of-all-trades.

While it is very doubtful if the material position of the English working-man would be improved by transferring his labour to this country, there is another point of view in connection with the subject which merits not less attention. Living, as the English workman would be, in complete, or in comparative isolation, in contact with races so inferior in moral and intellectual development, and cut off as he would be from religious and educational resources, what guarantee, nay, what most remote hope, could be entertained that, if not in his person, at any rate in that of his immediate progeny, the characteristic qualities of the English race would not be obliterated? This lamentable result is to be seen at this day with reference to classes of higher social standing than that of the working-man, and it is a prospect which no well-wisher to the Anglo-Saxon race can contemplate with complacency. There are such unlimited fields in our Colonies for the surplus workers of English race, that, when emigration is treated as a great public question, and is not abandoned as it has almost been hitherto to the efforts of private resources supplemented by the casual aid of benevolent individual co-operation, but carried out by national funds, and in pursuance of an enlarged concert between the Home and Colonial Governments, the super-abundant population of the mother-country need not, for many untold generations, be in want of a home and the means of preserving and perpetuating unimpaired the moral and intellectual, not less than the physical qualities of the British race.

(Signed) J. S. MALING.

Inclosure 6 in No. 10.

Consul Skene to Mr. Elliot.

Sir, *Aleppo, October* 21, 1869.

I HAVE the honour to acknowledge the receipt of your Excellency's Circular of the 21st June last, calling

for information with regard to the position of the artizan and industrial classes in this Province.

The proportions which the numbers so employed bear to the other classes of the inhabitants, are approximatively as 1 to 11½, for there are 3,200 artizan and industrial establishments of different kinds, employing on an average three persons each in a population of 110,000, while it may be computed that nearly one-half of that population is, more or less precariously, supported by them.

Their lodgings are very poor, consisting chiefly of a small room in a house rented by several families, at the rate of from 4*s.* to 10*s.* per month each.

Their engagements with their employers are generally to work by the piece, and few of them can earn more than 10*s.* per week. When wages are paid, they range from 1*s.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* per diem.

The labour market fluctuates greatly, and many workmen are often thrown out of employment for weeks and months according to the existing demand.

In this part of Turkey, therefore, no favourable opening is offered for the introduction of labour from without, and native workmen are too little skilled to admit of their being able to earn a livelihood elsewhere.

I have, &c.

(Signed) J. H. SKENE.

Inclosure 7 in No. 10.

Consul-General Eldridge to Mr. Elliot.

Sir, *Beyrout, October* 30, 1869.

In reply to your Excellency's Circular of the 21st June last, requesting information upon the position of the artizan and industrial classes in this country, I have the honour to furnish the following replies to the special points alluded to in your Excellency's Circular, together with such general information on the subject as I have been able to collect, and which my experience of the country has suggested to me.

1. The proportion which the numbers so employed bear to the other classes may be estimated at 25 per cent. as regards Beyrout, but in the small towns on the coast, such as Sidon, Tripoli, Lattakia, &c., the proportions must be considerably reduced. Beyrout being the only city of importance on the coast, the residence of a large foreign population, and the centre of Syrian commerce, offers much more advantages to the employment of skilled labour referred to than the smaller towns, which exhibit little signs of progress:—

2. The description of houses generally occupied by them is of a very inferior description, and can only be inhabited with comparative safety by the natives of the country.

3. Workmen are engaged by the day. No special engagements are made.

4. The rate of wages may be estimated at from 1*s.* to 3*s.* 6*d.*, according to the skill of the workmen and the nature of the work upon which he is employed.

5. The present state of the labour market presents no openings for the introduction of labour from without. The reverse is the fact; the supply being much greater than the demand.

This is caused chiefly by the gradual decay of native industries consequent upon the introductions of European manufactures into the country, which by their cheapness compete with success with native manufactures, and are gradually but slowly replacing them.

The majority of the artizans are employed upon work peculiar to the country, requiring a special knowledge of the nature of the material which they use, and rendering the introduction of foreign labour a matter of great difficulty if not impossibility.

In fact, I know of no branch of native handicraft or manufacture which could be successfully engaged in by foreigners or which is not considerably overstocked.

Were, indeed, any opening possible of which the skill and enterprise of our labouring classes might take advantage, the difficulties which they would encounter in the difference of climate, want of suitable dwellings, and a variety of other causes, would be insuperable.

Having given the subject of your Excellency's Circular my most careful attention and research, I can come to no other conclusion than that Syria offers no

openings which might be made subservient to the interests and advantages of our labouring classes.

I have, &c.

(Signed) G. JACKSON ELDRIDGE.

Inclosure 8 in No. 10.

Consul Cumberbatch to Mr. Elliot.

Sir, *Smyrna, December* 3, 1869.

In reply to your Excellency's queries contained in despatch, Circular, of the 21st June, 1869, respecting the position of the artizan and industrial classes in Turkey, I have the honour to state:—

1st. That the proportion which the numbers so employed bear to the other classes is 80 per cent.; this, of course, includes agriculturists for the whole vilayet of Aidin. A large proportion of these hold small tenements and cultivate on their own account, but any accurate statistics cannot possibly be obtained.

2nd. The houses which these classes inhabit are generally of a very inferior description, built of mud and thin planks, and the usual one room is much overcrowded.

3rd. The nature of their engagements with their employers is sometimes by day work, sometimes by the week, sometimes by the piece, and sometimes by the year, with clothes, food, and lodgings found them in the latter case.

4th. A common labourer receives 2*s.* a-day, an artizan 4*s.*, but the work is not continuous, and is very precarious.

When engaged by the year, they obtain 6*l.*, 8*l.*, and 12*l.* per annum, besides food and lodging and clothing.

5th. At certain seasons of the year the local labour market does not give the requisite supply in some districts; that is to say, during the harvest and the building season; but the extra supply is easily obtained from the islands. I do not consider there is any opening for British labour of any kind in this district at the present time. There are large tracts of uncultivated land, but, as long as the present uncertain adminis-

tration exists, together with the injurious taxation under the "farming" system, no foreigners could make a reasonable profit if he invested his capital in land. The natives barely gain a livelihood either as artizans or labourers.

I have, &c.
(Signed) ROBT. WM. CUMBERBATCH.

No. 11.

Mr. Gordon to the Earl of Clarendon.—(*Received January* 10.)

My Lord, *Stuttgardt, January* 8, 1870.

I HAVE the honour to forward herewith, Mr. Baillie's Report on the industrial classes in the Grand Duchy of Baden, furnished in compliance with the instructions of your Lordship's Circular despatch of 30th April last, and which reached me last night.

I have, &c.
(Signed) G. J. R. GORDON.

Inclosure in No. 11.

Report by Mr. Baillie on the Labouring Classes in the Grand Duchy of Baden.

Carlsruhe, January 18, 1870.

OUT of a population of 1,428,090 in 1864, there are stated to have been employed:—

		Per cent. of Population.
Exclusively in agriculture	585,000	or 40·7
Day labourers	158,000	11
Masters and factory operatives ..	470,000	32·9
In commerce, on railways, roads, &c. .	160,000	7·4
Other professions	110,000	7 7
The number of small manufacturers and persons working on their own account was . ..	49,992	
Assistants and apprentices	41,565	
Altogether	101,557	

About 25 per cent. of the population inhabit the towns, and 75 per cent. the country communes.

Domestic Industry.—Domestic manufacture lost much of its former importance, even before the actual abolition of the old Guild system. The Baden Government had for many years been preparing the way for the introduction of complete industrial freedom, by liberal concessions and dispensations. The factory system made rapid progress. The owners of factories, often possessed of considerable capital, were able, with their improved but costly machinery, by purchasing their raw material in large quantities from the best sources, and by an advantageous division of labour, to produce articles formerly manufactured exclusively by domestic industry, at such reduced prices, that the latter could no longer stand the competition.

The number of masters in many places became too great for the local demand; there was no longer sufficient employment to enable each one to support his family. Great distress ensued, and numbers of the small manufacturers either went into the factories or emigrated to North America.

Others of the better class took to trade or agriculture.

Upwards of 12,600 small manufacturers emigrated in the period 1852-54.

The condition of those that remained behind was thereby greatly improved.

The effect produced on the country in general in respect to pauperism and crime is also worthy of notice.

In the interval 1854-62, the number of paupers in receipt of assistance, either from the State or the communes, declined nearly one-half.

The cases of theft tried in the Criminal Courts fell from 43 to 6, and in the other courts from 1,009 to 460.

The number of persons in prison for offences of different kinds declined from 1,448 to 691.

The agricultural and industrial population had never been in more prosperous circumstances than they were at the end of 1862, the year in which industrial freedom was introduced by law. The effect of the change has certainly not been to diminish that prosperity; on the contrary, everything tends to show that the people have greatly benefited by it.

As far as the general interests of domestic manufacture are concerned, it is obvious that the facility now afforded for engaging in any particular business in place of a less remunerative one, or for settling in a more convenient locality, must be an advantage to many branches of industry. Besides this many small master manufacturers often profit by the experience of the factories, by the experiments there made in the invention and improvement of many articles of manufacture, the risks and losses attending which, the small manufacturer could never have afforded to incur.

The two systems are not necessarily antagonistic, but may be mutually aids to one another.

Small establishments are undoubtedly exposed to greater competition than they were before, the effect of which is to increase the demand for competent skilled workmen, and this must tend gradually to raise the character and efficiency of that class.

Since the introduction of industrial freedom the attention of the Government and country has been more than ever directed to the question of the education of the industrial classes and the diffusion of knowledge among them. Industrial schools are being established in all parts, and the popular schools are being reorganized, in order to meet the wants created by the altered circumstances of those classes.

Great importance is attached to improving the education of women, so that in addition to the special branches of instruction, they may receive a training in such domestic duties as may fit them hereafter to be either efficient servants, or managers of their own households.

Labour in the Factories.

The following returns, made by order of Government this year, and which have just appeared, respecting the condition of the working classes in the factories, though very imperfect, afford some interesting points of information, and may be relied on as accurate.

These returns have reference to those factories which regularly employ more than twenty persons in their working-rooms and warehouses :—

The number of such factories is		403
The total number of operatives employed in them		34,487
Of these dismissed from schol—		
Males	17,905	
Females	13,044	
		30,949
Attending school—		
Males	1,069	
Females	931	
		2,000
Attending school—		
Under 10 years of age	164	
From 10 to 12 years	695	
Above 12 years	1,141	
		Hours.
The average number of hours of daily labour for operatives dismissed from school in winter..		11·5
Ditto, in summer		12
Minimum		8
Maximum		14
Those attending schools in winter		6·7
Ditto, in summer		6·8
Minimum		3
Maximum		13

Of 32,375 operatives employed and paid by the piece and daily wages :—

	By the Piece.	Daily Wages.
Dismissed from school . ..	13,406	17,017
Attending school	877	1,075

The average earnings per day of workmen paid by the piece :—

				Minimum.		Maximum.		
Dismissed from school :—	Fl.	kr.	*s.* *d.*	Kr.	*d.*	Fl.	kr.	*s.* *d.*
Males	1	10	= 2 0	29	= 10	3	0	= 5 0
Females	0	43	1 3	19	7	1	6	1 10
Attending school	0	18	0 6	7	2¼	0	36	1 0

Daily wages of :

Dismissed from school :—								
Males	0	57	1 8	26	9	1	48	3 0
Females	0	33½	0 11½	15	5	1	10	2 0
Attending schools	0	20½	0 7	8	3	0	40	1 1½

The ordinary cost of a workman's sleeping place (out of the factory) varies between 1 kreutzer (average of

Heidelberg Circle) and 6 kreutzers (average of Mannheim Circle). The average of the whole country is 4 kreutzers daily.

The ordinary cost of meals for a single workman is :—

	Kr.	kr.	Average. Kr.
Out of the factory establishment—			
Males	12 to	40	24¼
Females	14	24	19
In the factory establishment—			
Males	12	33	19½
Females	9	24	17

Of the above 403 factories there are stated to be forty-nine which furnish workmen with employment in their own dwellings.

Of these workpeople there are, altogether ..		2,857
Males	688	
Females	1,592	
Boys attending schools	198	
Girls, ditto	379	

The average daily earnings of such domestic industry is :—

	Fl.	kr.
Males	1	11
Females	0	36
Children	0	15

Factory Schools.

		Attended by	
		Boys.	Girls.
In Lörrach circle . ..	4	184	144
Carlsruhe	1	10	20
Mannheim	1	107	83
Altogether ..	6	301	247

In consequence of an increase in the price of the necessaries of life, wages in the factories appear to have been raised considerably in the year 1863. The Freiburg Chamber of Commerce published in their last Report the following Table, showing the rate of wages in the principal factories in 1863 and 1866.

Operatives in	Wages of Adult Males in 1863.	Wages of Adult Females in 1863.	Wages of Adult Males in 1866.	Wages of Adult Females in 1866.	Rise of Wages from 1863–66.	
					Males.	Females.
	Fl. kr. Fl. kr.	Kr.	Fl. kr. Fl. kr.	Kr.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Cotton spinning mills ...	0 48 ...	30	0 54 ...	36	12	20
Cotton weaving mills ...	0 48 ...	36	1 0 ...	48	25	33
Cigar factories	0 50 ...	42	0 57 ...	48	14	14
Iron foundries ("Fournier" factories)	...	...	...	...	...	15
Hemp factories	1 6 ...	...	1 30 ...	...	36	...
Cotton printing	1 6 to 1 12	...	1 12 to 1 24	...	13	...
Button	0 46 0 50	26 to 30	0 48 0 54	28 to 34	7	11
Leather	0 48 1 6	...	1 12 1 30	...	40	...
Mechanical	1 0 1 12	...	1 24 1 30	...	32	...
Paper	...	...	...	...	...	...
Umbrella	...	...	...	...	½ of wages	12
Silk	...	...	...	...	...	10 to 15

Engagements of Workmen with their Employers.

The Industrial Law of 1862 provides that the mutual rights and obligations between employers and their assistants shall be fixed by contract,—the municipal authorities being competent to negotiate and decide in case of disputes.

When more than twenty persons are employed, manufacturers are bound to supply, independent of any special rules for the different classes of their operatives, what is called a "Dienstordnung," that is, a set of regulations to be affixed to the walls of their working-rooms, and comprising the following points :—

(1.) The number of hours of labour.

(2.) General regulations for preventing disputes, immorality, precautions against fire.

(3.) The duties of superintendents.

(4.) Time for settlement of accounts.

(5.) Respecting notice to quit, and the causes justifying dismissal.

(6.) Conventional punishments (deduction from wages).

(7.) Regulations for the treatment of persons in sickness or suffering from accidents.

In the factories engagements in writing are usually only required in those cases where the time of their duration is especially stipulated.

An employer is considered as justified in immediately cancelling an engagement and dismissing a workman without previous notice :—

(1.) In the case of gross insult to himself or his

representative, or if the workman has been guilty of making false representations respecting the business;

(2.) If the workman is repeatedly disobedient to the orders of his principal or the person acting for him;

(3.) If he has been guilty of dishonesty, however slight, betrayal of the secrets of the factory, or any misconduct calculated to injure the reputation of the establishment, or if he has neglected to give notice to the owner of such misconduct on the part of others as far as it is known to him;

(4.) If the workman has done work for some other employer without the consent of the principal;

(5.) If the workman creates disturbance in the establishment by disorderly conduct, if he is careless in the use of the materials confided to him (such as gold in the jewellery factories), withdraws from his work against the will of the owner without good reason, or is repeatedly idle during the lawful appointed hours of labour;

(6.) If events, over which the owner has no control, prevent him from employing the workman.

The workman, on the other hand, is no longer bound by his engagement, and may quit the establishment at once:—

(1.) If the employer has been guilty of grossly or criminally maltreating him;

(2.) If he does not pay the stipulated wages at the proper time, or lowers them contrary to the agreement;

(3.) If, from want of sufficient employment or other causes, he obliges the workman to be long without work;

(4.) If the employer transfers his business to another place;

If, when an engagement is contracted, nothing is stipulated respecting remuneration of labour in order to allow time for testing the qualifications of the workman, both parties may, after the expiration of 14 days, insist upon the amount of wages being then fixed, and if an understanding cannot be come to, the engagement is considered as cancelled.

The same rule applies when payment is made by the piece.

All the operatives are required to give 14 days' notice if they wish to quit the factory, unless a longer

period is specially stipulated by agreement. An employer is bound to give similar notice to a workman that he intends to dismiss.

Payment of Wages.—Wages are sometimes paid weekly and sometimes every month, but most commonly once a fortnight. In connection with the factories there are generally funds as a provision in case of death and old age, savings' banks, factory schools, unions for the improvement of the workmen, consumption associations, singing unions.

When fines are imposed the money flows into the fund for the sick, which is supported by contributions in the form of regular deductions from the wages of the workmen.

Workmen's Dwellings.—In most of the manufacturing districts either bedrooms have been provided for the operatives, or houses built or hired for them. Workmen, however, are not always disposed to accept the accommodation offered them; they object to live together in the same part of the town, or to form what may be called a workmen's quarter. This feeling, which is more or less prevalent in all parts of the country, is especially rife in Pforzheim, where there are many factories in close juxta-position, and a large number of operatives employed.

In Freiburg the complaint is that the workmen's houses are too good and the rent above what they can properly afford. In Carlsruhe, I understand, the idea of building such houses has been altogether abandoned.

Notwithstanding the difficulties which undoubtedly exist in meeting the wants of the labouring population in this respect, much has been, and is being done, to provide the workmen with comfortable accommodation at the lowest possible cost.

A firm in Constance builds workmen's houses and sells them at the cost price, 1,050 florins (90*l.*), on a system by which the firm is reimbursed in annual payments at the end of 13 years.

The first payment is 150 florins or more; the annual quota in case of a minimum first payment is 92 florins. More, however, may be paid off.

The firm selects from among the candidates for

purchase. In order, however, to guard against the system being abused for the purpose of speculation, the firm reserves to itself the right, if the house should be sold within 10 years, of claiming it again at the original cost price.

This system has been adopted in several places, and, I believe, has been found to work pretty well.

In the mirror manufactory a few miles from Mannheim, between 500 and 600 operatives are employed. Here there are more than 200 lodgings with four or six rooms in each for the married men, and accommodation for 200 unmarried workmen, which have been constructed for them free of rent. Each family has in addition, behind his free lodging, a small garden and also a patch of land. For the superintendents and higher officials, dwellings adjoining the factory have also been built. The factory contains also a great variety of other conveniences for the benefit of the workmen, such as bakehouses, butchers, a grocery business, two churches, two schools, one for boys and the other for girls, a chemist's shop, hospital, baths.

This factory has, I believe, been lately considerably enlarged.

The glass factory at Gaggenau, near Rastall, employs about 60 workmen and 20 boys, all natives of the place. The married men nearly all possess a small property in land, which is looked after by their families. They all receive in the factory comfortable lodgings, kitchens, cellars, and gardens for vegetables, stable for one or two cows, and some other conveniences free of cost.

About 800 workmen are employed in the manufacture of chemicals by a firm at Mannheim. A large number, many of whom have families, are provided with lodgings and are well taken care of. Many other instances of a similar kind might be adduced.

Employment of Women in the Factories.

The question of the social importance of the factory system in regard to its influence upon the female population has received great attention of late years in this country. In many of the factories the young women are well taken care of. The well-conducted establishments are, in fact, schools of training and

improvement for them; and both their morals and health are often in much less danger there than in their own houses.

The silk factory of Carl Mez in Freiburg has been pointed out to me as one especially deserving of notice. He employs about 1,000 workpeople.

He has adopted two methods in carrying on his business.

The first has been to seek out for workwomen in their own homes; and secondly, to found an establishment where young women who apply to him for work in Freiburg may be lodged and boarded. His first method has led to the establishment of a number of branch factories in the neighbourhood of Freiburg, in those districts where the demand for labour appeared to be greater than the supply, and where the most of his workpeople would be within reach of their own homes.

The experience of this employer during thirty-five years is interesting in respect to the condition of the labouring classes in the country districts, and the influence which a well-conducted factory is calculated to exercise upon them. He observes, "If factories are well conducted in respect to morals, they are a source of benefit not only to the operatives and their families, but also to the whole population. We have observed this in the villages. It is a mistake to suppose that the condition of the agricultural labourers is a very satisfactory one. On the contrary, there is much misery among them, especially moral misery. When mothers apply to us for work for strong healthy girls we often observe to them that such girls are more fit for labour in the fields, and for service with the peasants, but, in reply, we too frequently receive from them an account of the hard and immoral life often associated with such service. We have ourselves perceived that girls have been obliged to submit to very severe peasant labour in the summer in order to eke out the most scanty subsistence for the winter.

"The scene changes, when a well-managed factory comes into a village. The poor girls must then either receive better treatment and better wages, or they go into the factory. In the first instance the richer peasants are annoyed at the competition they have to sustain, but in a few years all the well-disposed are glad to have the

factory, on account of the benefits which it extends to the houses of those who most need them, and in the end to the proprietors of the land. We have also lived to see that it is not the large peasant-farmers who enjoy the most credit with the Accountant of the Commune, but those families who send one or two girls into the factory; because the latter, owing to their regular earnings, are the most punctual in their payments.

"But the moral benefit of a well-ordered factory is still greater. It affects the whole village; and any one returning to it after twenty years will find, in many respects, a great change for the better."

The principal centres of manufacture in Baden are the jewellery manufacture in Pforzheim; the cotton factories of the Wiesenthal, and the clock manufacture of the Black Forest. Mannheim and Carlsruhe may also be mentioned; but many more might be established with great advantage, if there were sufficient capital and enterprise to develop the natural resources of the country. Baden possesses an abundance of water-power, generally situated in those districts where the population is dense, the land much sub-divided, and the people extremely poor.

At the present moment there is no want of employment for the labouring classes; and as wages have risen more rapidly than the prices of the necessaries of life, their condition is as good, or better, than it has been at any previous period.

Owing to the large demand for labour in the construction of railways, numbers of foreigners are employed.

(Signed) EVAN P. M. BAILLIE.

No. 12.

Mr. Bonar to the Earl of Clarendon.—(*Received January* 12.)

My Lord, *Berne, January* 6, 1870.

With reference to your Lordship's despatch of the 30th of April last, I have now the honour to inclose to your Lordship herewith a Report which, in the

absence of the Secretary of Legation, I have drawn up on the condition of the industrial classes in the Swiss Confederation.

I have, &c.
(Signed) A. G. G. BONAR.

Inclosure 1 in No. 12.

Report by Mr. Bonar on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in the Swiss Confederation.

The Swiss Confederation, consisting of twenty-five cantons, each having its peculiar laws, manners, and customs, is virtually an agglomeration of separate States. The great difference which consequently characterizes the life of the Swiss citizen in these various geographical divisions, renders the task of generalizing the condition of the operative classes with anything approaching to accuracy a difficult, if not an impossible, task.

It may, however, be broadly stated that, as regards the principal manufacturing districts, the working man is in a far more prosperous state than his co-labourer engaged in the development of manufactures in other countries, owing to the system of decentralization, as opposed to centralization, universally in force: and thus the Swiss operatives, for the most part living in their own homes, surrounded by their families, and cultivating their own lands, are less influenced by those periodical storms and harassing fluctuations to which industry in all its various branches is everywhere exposed.

In enumerating the highly favourable circumstances in which the Swiss working man is placed, prominence must be given to the immense extension of the principle of democracy, which, whatever may be its defects and dangers from a political point of view, when pushed to extremes, serves in Switzerland, in its economical effects, to advance the cause of the operative, by removing the barriers dividing class from class, and to establish among all grades the bonds of mutual sympathy and good-will, further strengthened by a widely-spread network of associations, organized with the object of securing the common interests and welfare of the people.

These societies, entitled "Sociétés d'Utilité Publique," exist indeed in almost every canton. Their main scope is to promote enterprises of a general practical character, especially educational schemes, to support and ameliorate the condition of the poor, and to give an impetus to industrial undertakings.

Foremost among these associations, both as regards the extended sphere of its operations and ancient foundation, is the Society of Basle. It was instituted by Isaac Izelin in 1777. According to the most recent authorities it numbers over 900 members with a capital amounting to 6,000*l*. The wide range of its philanthropic exertions may be judged from the following list of the principal charitable objects and national institutions to which either its funds are devoted, or over which its untiring supervision is directed—viz., the sick; the deaf and dumb; liberated criminals; factory hands; apprentices; infant schools; schools of manufacture, design, and modelling; national banks; savings banks; singing classes; bathing establishments; halls open for Sunday recreation; popular lectures; working men's lodgings; protection to animals, &c. The Society which holds the next most important rank, although of a more theoretical than practical character, is that which has its centre at Zurich, called "La Société Suisse d'Utilité Publique," and the field of whose labours is spread over the whole Confederation. It was founded in 1810. A Congress is held annually at Zurich, where discussions take place, and lectures are delivered on important social questions. These transactions are published and form a collection of valuable treatises. The small annual subscription of 5 francs (4*s*. 2*d*.) renders admission to the Society within the limits of every one's means. General meetings are, moreover, alternately convened in the different cantons. These gatherings are hailed with every mark of enthusiasm, and are, indeed, the occasion when men of all ranks and shades of political and religious opinions meet together on neutral ground to extend the right hand of fellowship, and to keep alive the interest universally felt in all questions which concern the prosperity of the masses.

Numerous other Societies, scientific, industrial, and agricultural, exist in various parts of the country; in Berne, Fribourg, Neuchâtel, the Jura, Argonie, &c.,

testifying to the general desire to combine in furthering national progress (and especially the welfare of the working classes) in all its multitudinous ramifications.

The International Workmen's Association, which holds its meetings at Geneva, deserves particular mention. The circumstance of workmen combining to ameliorate their own condition, marks a new epoch in our own history as well as in that of Switzerland. Such a tendency has no doubt its good side. It is an earnest of self-reliance, and of a sense of individual responsibility. As such, it should be encouraged. But, nevertheless, its full development, though desirable in a Republic like Switzerland, is hardly compatible with all political institutions.

The International Working Men's Association is particularly active at Lausanne, and has already obtained very important practical results, such as finding labour, organizing clubs, banks, &c., for its members. Nor must omission be made of the Society of Grutli, which though of a more political character than the foregoing, is exclusively Swiss. This Association has founded many important institutions, such as societies of mutual support, savings' banks, and cheap eating-houses, and erected various resorts for instruction and amusement. There are besides other societies of a purely religious kind, both Protestant and Roman Catholic, exercising a special supervision and care over the education and well-being of the operative classes. The influence exerted by these bodies is kept alive and enlarged through the Press, while the beneficent labours of its members are evinced in the form of printed reports, books, and periodicals. Unfortunately, these works are but little consulted beyond the immediate circle of the readers to whom they are specially addressed; and, their utility being localized, the fruits which they would otherwise produce are not as abundant as they might be were they more widely scattered.

It is notorious that similar results have been experienced in other countries, and the necessity for removing the evil of localization led to the creation of the International Congresses of Brussels, Frankfort, and London. The Genevese "Society of Public Utility," has been the first in Switzerland to benefit by the suggestions proposed at these Congresses with a view to supply a

remedy. It has founded a library, containing 2,000 works on social questions, comprising many books and pamphlets not found in other collections, which have not only been generally circulated throughout the Confederation, but have even found their way to France, Belgium, Italy, and Austria.

All these various philanthropic efforts to ameliorate the condition of the Swiss population at large, and of the operative in particular, meet with valuable aid from the native employers, who are thrown into daily contact with their workmen, and are naturally in the best position to understand their wants, while at the same time they are most interested in contributing to their relief.

The unwearying energy and benevolent exertions of the master to ameliorate the condition of the operative, are, indeed, manifested in a greater or less degree throughout the Confederation, and a few examples may be deemed sufficient to prove the fact.

In the canton of Appenzell, in times of trade depression, employers find work for their factory hands even at a loss to themselves. Masters and men mingle together here, as elsewhere, at the frequent periodical meetings of the various societies established for their mutual support, and the former are ever ready either to make practical suggestions to all who seek them, or prompt to dispense special favours to tried and experienced hands.

In Glarus, which may be considered a model canton as regards the relations between employer and employed, and where a third of the population consists of operatives, the communes encourage every new enterprise, superintend the schools and local libraries, and in critical periods find labour, provide soup kitchens, and buy provisions for the purpose of reselling them at cost price to their distressed workmen. The privilege granted to the steady among the latter, of filling places in the Communal Councils side by side with their masters, or of sitting in inns and cafés near numbers of the middle classes boasting of easy circumstances, the institution of choral societies, in the organization and conducting of which priests take a leading part, and where all mix on a footing of familiar intercourse and equality, together operate to bind the working classes in a closer tie with their immediate superiors and with the civil and ecclesiastical authorities.

On the other hand, the idle, improvident, and unskilled operatives naturally enjoy no special advantages, and share the fate which falls to the lot of men of their stamp in other countries. Those who are neither distinguished for intelligence or activity, although excluded from the privileges granted to the higher class of workmen, can, if in good health and not overburdened with children, rise to a position of comparative affluence.

Nor are employers less sedulous at Glarus than at Appenzell in doing their part towards providing for the wants and comforts of their operatives. They subscribe largely to the funds set apart for the aid of the sick and for the distribution of pensions. They come forward with substantial pecuniary assistance in all cases of accidents. They contribute handsomely to the schools, and take the initiative in the creation of new manufactures. Again at Serrières, in the canton of Neuchâtel, another essentially manufacturing district, since out of a small population of 500, nine-tenths are engaged in its paper mills and chocolate manufactories, the masters exercise a no less benevolent care over their workmen. They provide excellent lodgings for them, find money for their maintenance when disabled by sickness or infirmity, find schools for their children, and never put a stop to the works even in periods of financial crisis.

But at Olten, in the canton of Soleure, where the Company of the Great Central Railway give employment to 700 workmen, we find perhaps the most striking example of the prosperous condition of the operative in Switzerland, and of the good effects produced by the untiring solicitude exercised by the employer towards the employed. While the rate of wages is higher in the Company's works than in the factories situated in other cantons, the hours of labour are limited to from ten and a-half to eleven hours. When struck down by illness the operative is here always certain of being as kindly treated as if he were living with his own family, or if high prices prevail the promptest measures are taken to alleviate his distress.

The result of this considerate attention is shown by the good conduct of the men. Cases of ill behaviour are not only rare, but have never been known to occur at Olten. The operatives are moreover much attached to each other, look upon the director of the works in the

light of a father rather than a master, and consider his decision in their quarrels in the few instances in which they occur, ultimate and binding.

Having given an approximative idea of the character of the relations existing in Switzerland between the industrial classes and their employers, and of the general well-being of the former, we must now consider in greater detail the condition of the operative with especial reference to education, food, and lodging, glance at the measures taken to train him for his work, to keep him in health, to bring him to perfection as a man, and as an instrument employed to develop the manufactures of the Confederation.

The laws of Switzerland oblige every Swiss to attend the "Primary" schools for a certain number of years. Geneva forms the only exception to this rule. But although not compulsory in that canton, attendance at the schools is as regular there as in other parts of the country where it is made obligatory. So wide-spread, indeed, is education in Switzerland that every commune has its school, and cases of complete or even partial absence from these institutions are exceedingly rare. The wisdom of conforming to the Laws in this respect, although it has been of slow growth, is in fact so generally recognized at present that penalties for their infraction, which take the shape of fines and imprisonment, are seldom inflicted. The few instances in which it is found necessary to resort to extreme measures are limited to cases of poor parents wishing their children to earn a livelihood as speedily as possible, or of mountaineers whose dwellings are separated from other habitations by great distances.

The age at which children enter the primary school and the duration of their stay there varies somewhat in the different cantons. Generally speaking, the laws oblige them to commence their attendance at the age of six or seven, and they are bound not to leave the primary school until they are fifteen or sixteen. Children never go to school at an earlier age, and never leave it at a more advanced one. In the canton of Underwald, although the law does not force a child to remain at a primary school after twelve, masters have a sort of recognized right to detain their scholars until they have passed their final examination. It frequently happens that girls are allowed to leave the primary schools before

boys are permitted to do so, but in that case the girls have to attend classes where they are taught to sew and knit. In most instances Legislation is less exacting when a child has reached the age of eleven or twelve, and gradually diminishes the number of hours, and even days of attendance during the succeeding period of education at the schools of "repetition" and "evening" schools.

There is thus a gradual transition from the life of the scholar to that of the workman; and the latter being emancipated by degrees from the trammels of school life, is better prepared to use with advantage to himself that perfect freedom of action which he reaches by progressive stages.

As an instance of the system of gradual relaxation from study, which in a greater or lesser degree is pursued in every canton, it may be observed that in Schaffhausen daily attendance of boys and girls at the primary schools, although obligatory for the first five years, is limited during the three following years to six hours a-week in summer, and thirty hours a-week in winter; and during the two or three succeeding years at the schools of "repetition," to six hours a-week for boys, and three hours a-week for girls, from July to February.

The law which requires that children should attend the primary schools, virtually imposes an obligation on the State, or, more correctly speaking, in the majority of instances on the communes, of endowing numerous schools throughout the country. These institutions are of a first-rate character, both as regards system and management. The introduction of compulsory education is not, in Switzerland, necessarily considered to imply gratuitous instruction. Still, as regards the primary schools, education is given free of all charge in very many cantons.

Whenever parents are called upon to pay school expenses, all such claims are preferred, not in the name of the State, but in that of the communes, who often require to be reimbursed for the considerable outlay which these schools entail on them, and which, indeed, forms the principal item in the budget of their expenditure.

In many cantons special funds derived from legacies, sometimes amounting to considerable sums, enable the communes to support the schools themselves. In fact, it results that education is either gratuitous or otherwise, according to the means at the disposal of the communal authorities. Such is essentially the case in the cantons of Glarus, Grisons, and Schaffhausen.

But the rule generally holds good throughout the Confederation. Even where school fees are demanded, they are so small as to be scarcely more than nominal.

In the above-mentioned cantons, for instance, the charge is usually limited to 2 or 3 francs (1*s.* 8*d.* or 2*s.* 6*d.*) per head a-year. At Berne the fee is only 1 franc (10*d.*), while at Basle it is 12 francs (9*s.* 7*d.*) per annum.

Deductions on school charges are everywhere made in favour of the poor, in order that poverty should not be made an excuse for the absence of children belonging to parents in needy circumstances.

The Grisons may be cited as an example of the liberality with which schools are generally supported throughout the Confederation, in proportion to the funds in the hands of the communes.

Since 1830 the latter canton has spent 1,500,000 francs (or 60,000*l.*), notwithstanding its relatively small resources, in aid of its schools, and constructed in the same period no less than thirty large buildings for educational purposes.

The number of public schools is so considerable that there is little field for enterprise in the establishment of private seminaries and scholastic institutions. In the canton of Tessin, where these are most abundant, they number only 17 to 140 public schools; and in very many cantons there are no private educational establishments whatever.

Besides the institutions above enumerated, nearly every canton has its normal school in a highly flourishing condition, as regards number of scholars and regularity of attendance.

It is generally allowed that the primary schools offer a solid basis to the education of the people. No doubt the industrial classes here, as elsewhere, are better educated than the agricultural population; but on the

whole few countries can boast of so general a diffusion of knowledge throughout the masses as is to be met with in Switzerland.

The primary schools are, however, as has been pointed out, only the first stepping-stones to education. The next stages are the schools of "Repetition," or "Evening and Sunday Schools," which are open to young apprentices and workmen to perfect the knowledge they have acquired in the primary school. The subjects of study are, therefore, still of an elementary kind, such as reading, writing, cyphering, drawing, French, and German; and rarely go beyond these.

The lessons are given during the hours when the operative is usually at leisure, that is on non-working days, or on Sundays. These schools are numerous, and much frequented; and in those parts of Switzerland, where they are unaided by the munificence of private individuals, or of philanthropic societies, the State undertakes their support.

What are called "industrial" schools, are also very considerable in number; some having a special literary or commercial character, others being more exclusively designed for the benefit of the working classes. The schools in the latter category are generally situated in the most populated and central districts. There the subjects of study include drawing, modelling, calculation (especially in its application to industry and commerce), German, French, the elements of geometry, chemistry, and physics. There are many such institutions in the cantons of Geneva, Vaud, Neuchâtel, Berne, Lucerne, Zurich, Tessin, St. Gall, &c., which are all well attended.

The wants of the several localities naturally regulate the subjects to which the special attention of scholars is directed, and there are consequently many educational establishments founded for the purpose of teaching given subjects. Thus at Geneva there is an institution for boys and girls near the industrial school, where only drawing is taught, that town requiring artists in the decoration of watches and jewellery.

At Stanz in the Nidwald there is a school of design which numbers seventy scholars. There is also a school of the same kind at Basle where, in addition to design, instruction is given in modelling.

At Lausanne, the Society of Commerce and Industry

has founded an institution which has been particularly successful. The studies include instruction in modelling and sculpture. The scholars assemble three time a-week and busy themselves from seven in the morning till ten at night in modelling in clay, making casts, carving wood, and sculpturing stone.

A school of the same kind exists at Soleure which has produced as satisfactory results.

At Lugano gratuitous instruction is given in the application of chemistry to art and industry. Various other institutions of a like nature are found in different parts of Switzerland testifying to the general interest taken in the education of the artizan and industrial classes. Lectures on scientific, historical, and social subjects are, moreover, given in the different cantons, which are, of course, less numerously attended in the agricultural districts than in the towns, but on the whole their promoters have every reason to be satisfied with the results obtained.

To these various resources for imparting knowledge must be added the numerous circulating libraries, which exist in nearly every commune, containing works on general literature and technical subjects, the museums and public collections of all kinds, embracing every branch of art, archeology and natural history, which are found in every town, and all of which are frequently visited and consulted.

Having now enumerated the various measures resorted to in Switzerland to develop education among the people, and glanced at the nature of the theoretical instruction which the working man in common with all other classes receives, we will follow the former in his progress through the different stages of his practical or professional training.

The Swiss operative undergoes his apprenticeship either under parental supervision at home, or more frequently under the eye of his employer, or the superintendent of the works or factory.

But as employers frequently demand considerable fees for the instruction they impart in any department of lucrative trade, want of funds often preclude many young men from devoting themselves to callings likely to offer the most profitable returns.

In such cases public benevolence comes to the aid of

the apprentice. There are a large number of institutions and corporations throughout the Confederation founded with the object either of procuring good instructions for apprentices, or assisting them with money until their professional education is completed. They are moreover succoured in these straits by the charity of private individuals, as well as of the communes; and in more than one locality special funds exist derived from bequests, the interest of which is devoted to the above purpose, such, for example, as the "Fröhlich Fund" at Brugg, in the canton of Argovie. In 1829 M. Fröhlich left a sum amounting to 16,000 francs (640*l.*) to be employed by the magistrates of Brugg in the manner most likely to be conducive to the interests of the public. It was decided that the above legacy should be devoted to forming the nucleus of a fund in aid of the education of apprentices of both sexes, and M. Fröhlich's patriotic example has since been followed in various cantons.

The institutions of design and modelling, which have already been mentioned, are nearly allied to apprentice schools; but they so far differ from them that the lessons in skilled labour given there are applicable to every variety of trade and calling. Whenever any new branch of industry is introduced a number of apprentice schools are immediately instituted. Thus, among many other numerous examples, we find in the canton of Tessin a school where silk weaving is taught. At Fribourg and Geneva there are institutions where apprentices receive instructions in plaiting straw, &c. But clock and watch-making demanding prolonged and difficult studies, is perhaps the branch of trade above all others in which the practical education of the apprentice is carried to the highest pitch of perfection. Schools have been founded for this purpose at Geneva, Chaux de Fonds, and Locle; the establishments at the two former places being municipal institutions, and the latter exclusively reserved for the poor.

The school at Geneva, to which male and female scholars are admitted, is divided into five sections or classes, each having reference to a distinct operation in the construction of watches and clocks. The sexes are kept apart. Fourteen is the age fixed for admission; each Swiss paying 5 francs or 4*s.* 2*d.*, and each foreigner

20 francs or 16s. a month. Although the apprenticeship lasts five years, the instruction given is devised in such a way as to enable the apprentice to gain his livelihood in one or other of the above branches after three years have elapsed from the date of entrance. The number of scholars is much reduced from what it was in former years, owing to the depression which has fallen on this department of trade, but energetic efforts are being made to keep the school up to its original mark.

The watch and clock institution at Chaux de Fonds was founded as recently as 1864. Instruction is given to pupils either devoting themselves exclusively to watch and clock-making, or to workmen desiring to receive finishing lessons in any particular handicraft. The school is divided into two sections : pupils permanently residing in the establishment and day scholars. The first must have reached the age of 14, and pay a fee amounting to 1*l.* a month. They are, moreover, obliged to satisfy the examiners that their previous studies in other schools have been sufficiently complete. Prizes are given and certificates of general capacity on leaving the establishment.

Those members of the industrial classes who have taken most advantage of the professional training within their reach have naturally the best prospect of gaining a livelihood; nevertheless, as a body, they are exposed to formidable vicissitudes of fortune, principally resulting from want of work; although in most cantons the operatives are either owners of, or hold from the communes, small pieces of land which they cultivate in their leisure hours, and which thus contribute somewhat towards their maintenance when work is slack or fails them altogether.

In the latter case the operative has recourse to the various offices established by private enterprise to meet such contingencies, where work is either found for, or charity is dispensed to him. Various other means are taken to diminish the hardships of the operative at these periods, though they are not always successful. Some establishments exist, such as those at Geneva, Basle, Schwytz, and St. Gall, where loans are advanced on wages, though at so high an interest (12 and even 18 per cent.) as to be practically useless. But on the other hand there are numerous institutions called "Gewerbehallen" or bazaars, affiliated to offices for advancing

loans on wages, which have been productive of excellent results. These establishments are all regulated on one system, and are principally found at Basle, Aarau, Fribourg, Coire, Lucerne, Soleure, and even in less populated districts such as Muri in Argovie, which has only 2,000 inhabitants, and at Kreutzlingen in Thurgovie which has even a more spare population. A workman who has manufactured any article, and is unable to find an immediate or advantageous sale for it, has the option of depositing it at one of these bazaars, and on doing so he obtains an advance on a portion of its value from the Government managers. When such an article is sold the result of its sale is accounted for to its owner by the latter after deducting the original sum advanced and a small charge to cover the expenses of the transaction. Employers are, moreover, always ready to pay wages in advance as long as they see a prospect of the operative remaining in their service, but when the loan is applied for with the manifest object of self-emancipation, it is not granted. The Burgesses and Corporations also frequently advance loans to their members.

A workmen's fund has been gradually established at Soleure which has met with no loss since 1860, and which amounts at present to over a thousand pounds.

At Basle, the Society of Public Utility has founded an establishment where loans are principally advanced to operatives, on condition of providing two distinct guarantees for the repayment of such loans. Nor is this all. Operative banks, people's banks, savings' banks, societies of mutual credit, and numerous institutions of a similar character exist in nearly every part of Switzerland where loans are contracted.

As a general rule, therefore, the workman finds no difficulty in borrowing. There are even some places such as Soleure and Locle where the facility for so doing is so great that a heavy burden of debt weighs on the working classes in these towns.

The want of work, and consequent necessity for borrowing, is not the only drawback from which the operative suffered. The civil and military laws by diminishing his working days seriously interfere with him. In Berne and Schaffhausen, for instance, every citizen is fined who does not take part in the various municipal elections ; and as the cantonal laws now

everywhere give the citizen a larger share in the exercise of Sovereignty than was the case formerly, so the cares of Government now fall more directly on the people and occupy much valuable time; among these may be mentioned the "veto," (the "referendum") or discussions on the local laws, the political elections which take place at stated periods, besides the numerous municipal elections repeatedly occurring in every canton.

The religious festivals, moreover, more numerous in the Roman Catholic than in the Protestant Church, although the number in both persuasions is excessive and has given rise to serious complaints, the drilling and field days which every Swiss must attend up to the age of 28, and in some cantons up to 34, are all so many additional interruptions to operative labour.

As in other manufacturing countries, certain occupations are more prejudicial than others to the industrial classes. Domiciliary labour, too, so prevalent throughout the Confederation, and which at first sight would appear to have a favourable effect, in a sanitary sense, on the operative, has not all the advantages it is generally held to possess. It produces the evil effects of too sedentary a life, and also entails constant application to work subjected to no direct control.

The manufacture of watches, both in this respect and as regards the strain on the eyesight, is considered to be one of the most injurious occupations, although the authorities have everywhere taken the best precautionary measures, both to protect the workman as far as possible from its attendant evils, and to prevent children from being employed in this trade at too early an age.

In the glass-blowing works, also, men are exposed to a very high temperature and to long night watches, both of which are very prejudicial to health, especially in the Valais and Bernese Jura.

In the potteries situated at Horgen, in the Canton of Zurich, a particular disease is prevalent called the "lead" colic.

Again, wherever the straw-plaiting establishments most abound—in Fribourg and Onsernone especially—the workman is subject to a disabling affection at the extremity of the fingers in consequence of his being repeatedly obliged to dip the hands in cold water and keep them wet.

In the north-east of Switzerland, where industry is most developed, the injury to health resulting from manufactures is naturally excessive. The only exception is to be found at Schaffhausen, where there are large iron and steel foundries, and where machinery, waggons, arms, and watch cases, &c., are largely manufactured.

In the dyeing-works generally, especially in those where Turkey-red is much used, certain operations necessary in the process of drying require a high degree of heat which is held to be fatal to the lungs.

In the cotton-printing establishments there is not sufficient ventilation to counteract the dangerous exhalations arising from the colouring substances in use.

Cotton-spinning, moreover, produces a fine dust which attacks the respiratory organs, and is found very injurious to health in Switzerland; while weavers, who mostly work in cellars or on the ground floor, are subject to diseases of the lungs produced by damp. Women also suffer greatly from the standing position they are obliged to assume in spinning, especially when in the family-way or recently confined.

A comparative Table of the average of wages, hours of labour, &c., prevailing in the principal manufacturing districts (divided under the three heads of men, women, and children) will be found annexed to this paper. It is therefore unnecessary to enter here into greater detail on these points. Speaking generally, about 91,719 adult men, 62,396 women, and 9,540 children are employed in the various factories; the men representing, therefore, 4·14, the women, 2·62, and the children 0·4 per cent. of the entire population of Switzerland.

If the Swiss operative may be said, as we have seen, to be the object of special solicitude on the part of the cantonal authorities and private individuals as regards his education, his efforts to find employment and to relieve his necessities in critical times, we shall find public and private benevolence no less active in every branch of his domestic economy.

The relation between the price of provisions and the rate of wages being of a fluctuating character, periods of crisis must arise when the less fortunate run the risk of being starved.

It was more especially to avert this misfortune that general attention was directed to the distress among the

working classes as early as 1802. Soup kitchens were instituted by the Society of Public Utility at Basle (which have since been opened every winter at that place), where a plate of soup costing the society 1*d.* and a fraction, is resold to the working-men for $\frac{3}{4}d.$ Similar kitchens are established at Geneva, where, in addition to substantial soup, meat is also liberally distributed.

At Zurich, again, there is an Association which supplies the poor with soups gratuitously, and sells such soup to other persons at halfpenny a plate, for which the Society pays $\frac{3}{4}d.$

Another Society has been founded at Lausanne for the purpose of distributing food, combining under one roof a soup kitchen, butchery, and bakery. At Lucerne, the municipality undertakes the entire charge of the soup kitchens in that canton. Lastly, the heads of all the Swiss factories sell food to their workmen at cost price. Nor do the operatives fail to exert themselves as far as they are able to obtain provisions at reduced prices. In many cantons, such as Olten, Soleure, and St. Imier (Berne) they have established "economical" kitchens where meals are obtained at very reduced cost. Butchers' and bakers' shops on the co-operative system are also found in various parts of the country, and the latter have been especially advantageous to the working classes in the cantons of Geneva, Lucerne, Basle, Soleure, and De Vaud. They are said to be very profitable undertakings; bread is sold at a very low rate, but only for ready-money or short credit. There are besides a large number of co-operative establishments sometimes affiliated to savings'-banks, either supported by the cantonal authorities, by private enterprise, or by the combined action of workmen themselves, opened with the object of reducing the price of all kinds of provisions and home necessaries, and inducing economy among the industrial classes, which have everywhere been distinguished by signal success.

If it be a matter of importance to the workman to obtain food at moderate rates, it is of no less consequence to him to find cheap lodging, for the necessity of paying rent is one of the severest, if not the heaviest, load by which his finances are oppressed. Unfortunately, in this respect, circumstances are but little in his favour. He is frequently obliged to find refuge with his family

in indifferent quarters for which he has to pay, relatively to his means, a considerable sum. Employers, being themselves directly interested in finding lodgings for their operatives in near neighbourhood to their work, have, in many parts of Switzerland, constructed dwellings for them close to their factories.

In the western districts there are, indeed, but few such lodging-houses, but they are more frequently met with as one approaches the north-east from the west, towards the Lake of Constance. A number of such lodging-houses are found in Soleure, Argovie, Zurich, Schaffhausen, and Thurgovie. The thirty-six houses built by MM. Wyss and Co., of Zurich, for the families employed by that firm, and which are situated in the country, may be cited as a fair example of the kind of dwellings constructed for operatives by their employers. These houses, which have a small garden attached to them, consist of a ground floor and upper floor, two or three rooms, a kitchen, cellar, and loft. The rent varies from 13*s.* 4*d.* to 18*s.* 4*d.* a-month, or 7*l.* 15*s.* and 10*l.* 11*s.* 8*d.* per annum. They are always occupied. Many such lodging-houses have been built by philanthropic societies, and even by the joint efforts of workmen themselves. A Society for erecting improved dwellings for the industrial classes was founded at Lausanne in 1860 with a capital of 8,000*l.* Another more recently with a capital of nearly 12,000*l.*, at Geneva, where the charge for a single room and kitchen amounts to 6*l.* a-year, and the rent of a kitchen, which can be let separately, is as low as 8*s.* a-month. Again at Neuchâtel another Society has erected a considerable number of lodging-houses, and proposes to build others, for the working classes. The apartments are grouped in fours with a common entrance, two apartments being on the ground floor and two on the first floor. Each lodger has his own garden, and the rent paid is very moderate. But the town of Locle, in the Jura, one of the principal districts where clock and watch-making is carried on, offers perhaps the most remarkable instance of the scale on which such buildings are constructed in Switzerland. Each block of houses built by the "Association Immobilière" consists of five divisions. These are again subdivided into holdings detached from each other and surrounded by little gardens. There are from 300 to

400 such holdings, their rents ranging from 6*l.* to 16*l.* per annum. They leave little to be desired as regards position, distribution, and ventilation. It is to be regretted, however, that financial embarrassments should have interfered with the plans originally proposed by the Association, which were on a scale three times as extensive. Still the scheme, even in its imperfect state, has been productive of considerable advantage to members of the working classes residing in that locality.

The society of public utility at Basle, which is incessantly active whenever the interests of the operative are concerned, has erected various houses for the industrial population of that town. One of these houses has a plot of ground attached to it divided into gardens covering an area from 2,500 to 2,600 feet. This building was held to be so perfect of its kind that it was purchased by the lodgers for a sum amounting to 1,500*l.*

Altogether this society has spent over 4,000*l.* in building lodging-houses since the year 1851, no inconsiderable sum for a relatively poor country like Switzerland.

Nor has the town of Berne been much behindhand in following the good example set by Geneva, Neuchâtel, Zurich, Basle, and other cantons.

In 1861, an Association was formed at Berne for the purpose of erecting working men's dwellings with a capital of 12,000*l.* It has constructed houses representing sixty-eight separate apartments, twenty-eight of which contain only one room, a kitchen, and its dependencies, with a garden attached, at a rent of 6*l.*, end the remainder at from 9*l.* 16*s.* to 11*l.* each per annum.

A second society was started at the capital in the course of the same year on a more extended scale, since its resources represent a fund of 40,000*l.* although the shares are not all paid up. It has built some forty houses, also divided into apartments, for which an annual rent (in round numbers) of 8*l.* for each apartment is demanded.

In the accounts hitherto given of the provision made for lodging the working classes, those dwellings only have been mentioned which are constructed for married men and their families settled in particular districts, since this class of workmen having the first claim on public solicitude has naturally received the greatest share

of public attention. But there are two other classes of operatives, the unmarried and the itinerant workmen, which must not be forgotten, and which, indeed, will deserve to be included among the objects of those philanthropic exertions which we have just been considering.

It is to be feared that, as a rule, both fare ill in Switzerland as regards lodging; their hardships in this respect being mainly caused by the circumstance that they have no other resources to look to but those which flow from their daily wages.

Yet it cannot be said that charity is not largely extended to these less fortunate members of the industrial classes. The itinerant workmen frequently find gratuitous accommodation in some public institution, such as the "Hôpital des Bourgeois" at Berne and the Old Hospital at Stanz. Throughout the communes in the canton of Neuchâtel, beds are at his disposal free of charge. At the Railway Junction at Olten, he is provided with food as well as with a bed for one night. Many other instances of similar hospitality might be cited. All operatives are, moreover, very considerate to each other, and are sure to give a hearty welcome to their itinerant fellow-labourers in the fullest sense of the term.

The "Hospices" and houses of refuge scattered over the summits of the Alps, over the St. Bernard St. Gothard, the Grimsel and other Passes are equally ready to open their doors to him. There he is not only supplied with a bed and as much food as he can desire, but he is kindly tended for days together when illness overtakes him while crossing these bleak mountainous regions, and is certain of receiving as a parting gift, and as a complement of the liberality with which he has been treated, a supply of warm clothing and excellent shoes for his onward journey.

As regards the foreign operative, there are a certain number of "pensions" or boarding-houses in every part of Switzerland, where he can obtain cheap food, and lodging at reasonable rates, that is from 5*s*. 10*d*. to 6*s*. 8*d*. a week.

The majority of these establishments are found at Schönenwerth in the canton of Soleure, at Neuchâtel and Zurich.

In treating of the measures taken in Switzerland to relieve the industrial classes from the weight of their domestic cares, two important points must not be omitted, first, the assistance afforded them in procuring

fuel for cooking purposes and to preserve their health during the long cold winters; secondly, the facilities given them for washing their linen.

In the numerous forest districts which cover the surface of the country the communes generally distribute wood gratuitously. There is not a single family throughout the canton of Argovie, for instance, which does not receive annually from 120 to 180 cubic feet of wood. The corporations and abbeys also make grants of this species of fuel according to their means and the nature of their properties. Many employers follow this example. The cantonal authorities of Soleure have done their utmost to introduce turf and encourage its consumption as a means of replacing the more expensive form of wood fuel; but these efforts have not been very successful, and since the general development of railway communication, coke, which is bought at a low price, has been extensively used for firing. Finally, the various establishments already mentioned under the name of "Consumverein," and similar associations, give large facilities for obtaining every description of fuel at reduced rates.

If we now turn to the next subjects affecting the daily expenses and comforts of the workmen, namely, his clothing and washing, we shall find an entire falling-off in the general interest taken in his welfare as regards the first and chief of these two necessaries of life. There is no establishment in Switzerland where workmen can obtain cheap clothing, at least at all commensurate with the small price of other necessaries. This is no doubt a singular omission in a country pre-eminently distinguished for its associations organized, with a view of ameliorating the condition of the working classes and dispensing charity generally. On the other hand, there are to found in nearly every town and village public fountains and washing apparatus protected by roofing where linen can be washed with ease and at little or no cost. A vast number of boats are, moreover, moored in the various lakes, rivers, and canals for this purpose; and both the cantonal authorities and private individuals readily allow of the free use of those countless limpid streams and waters which flow through the country.

Public enterprise has also introduced machinery for bleaching, drying, and ironing linen by steam in Basle, Lausanne, Geneva, Lucerne, Willisau, Schaffhausen,

Herzogenbuchsee, and even in the Grisons at Coire, Reichenau, Schiers, &c., the charges being on an average $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ for washing, $1d.$ for ironing, and $\frac{3}{4}d.$ for drying per hour.

This system has had excellent effect in one sense, namely, that of keeping the domiciles of the lower classes, where it is in force, entirely free from the damp and consequent unhealthiness produced by washing.

And this remark leads us to say that on the whole there are but few countries where the dwellings of the lower classes are better built and planned, and where they offer greater advantages in a sanitary point of view than in Switzerland. The mountainous districts are the only exception to this rule as regards ventilation and distribution of rooms. This is essentially the case in Schaffhausen. In most other cantons these dwellings are scattered in consequence of the prevailing system of isolating farms, and are consequently much more healthy than those collected in one spot. Though simple wooden buildings, they are in general sufficiently spacious and very dry, being fully exposed to the air and sun owing to their numerous windows. There are, moreover, no rooms below the level of the ground.

The canton of Glarus is the only canton in the Confederation where, in the rural districts, the people suffer from overcrowding.

The Swiss towns enjoy the same advantages with respect to health as the provinces, though it is true they boast of no large populations—Geneva, the largest. reckoning only about 42,000 souls. Some quarters and individual houses, of course, are deficient in drainage; but as regards general salubrity the towns of Switzerland are rather above than below the par of other towns of their size in Europe.

The industrial classes have, for the most part throughout the rural districts, the good fortune of working in factories where water-power is required, and which are consequently situated near rivers, canals, and water-courses. This circumstance is found to be very beneficial to their health.

The only prevalent disease in the Confederation is small pox; and in nearly every Canton there are establishments where vaccination is performed gratuitously. This precautionary and very necessary measure is,

indeed, compulsory throughout the greater part of Switzerland. Cholera very rarely appears.

Half-witted beings ("cretins"), are still, indeed, very numerous, but principally in the mountainous regions. The mystery which surrounds this species of paralysis of the brain has never been satisfactorily solved, though the affection is said to have diminished since the forests have been cleared on so large a scale. Fevers, too, are no doubt very prevalent in the agricultural districts owing to the great number of marshes and repeated inundations; but much has been done in the way of drainage and extensive embankments to remedy this evil.

The occupations of the industrial classes naturally render the latter more liable to disease than those of the agricultural population. Yet the following comparative Table of three industrial and three agricultural districts in the canton of Zurich shows a very serious disproportion between the diseases incidental to both classes:—

	Industrial.	Agricultural.
Diseases of the eyes	13	7
Injuries	14	7
Diseases of the bones and limbs . .	13	9
,, of the chest and heart . ..	37	10
,, of the lower extremities ..	9	5
General weakness and scrofula	11	5
Abscess	8	3

Various causes, notwithstanding, combine to place the condition of the industrial population on a higher level as regards health than is the case in other countries. They are generally better cared for, better lodged and fed. There are but few unhealthy districts. The cholera, it has been said, seldom visits Switzerland. The small-pox, he only prevalent disease, is subdued by compulsory vaccination. Meat forms the staple of the working man's food. The distance from which he is often removed from the scene of his labour forces him to take exercise. The system of decentralization allows him, as we have seen, to live principally in the country and to take a part in agricultural pursuits. His system is fortified either by the gymnastic exercises which adults as well as youths universally practise, or by the long excursions on foot, undertaken for his amusement in leisure hours, in which every Swiss, and especially the working-man, loves to

indulge. Public baths, where no entrance charge is demanded, are plentifully scattered over the country, and extensively used. Lastly, the military laws, which admit of no exemptions from regimental service contribute largely to his physical development and the consequent maintenance of his health.

Not only are the industrial classes specially favoured by accidental circumstances of climate, by their own habits of life, and by the peculiar institutions under which they live, but their natural self-independence of character enables them to form a powerful link by their numbers in that firm chain of brotherhood which unites all grades in one common bond of union.

Periods have no doubt arisen when this universal good feeling has been seriously menaced; such as in recent times the strikes among the operatives which took place at Basle and Geneva in 1868. But they have been of a fleeting nature, and have left no evil traces. These combinations of the employed against the employer were not, moreover, of native but foreign origin. It is sufficiently notorious that they were produced by the influence and at the instigation of the International League. That association issued its instructions to and distributed its funds among the few workmen it managed to entice during the brief periods of this industrial disturbance, without meeting with the sympathy which it calculated on ultimately obtaining. Nor are capital and labour indeed ever likely to stand long in formidable antagonism to each other in Switzerland, where the feelings of the working-man are so closely enlisted and interwoven with that ardent spirit of patriotism which pervades all classes, and where his interests point in so decided a direction to the extension rather than the diminution of that paternal benevolence and solicitude exercised by his employers, and on which, it is not too much to say, his very existence depends.

It is to be feared that there is small chance of an opening in Switzerland for our industrial population, owing to the formidable difficulties they would encounter in mastering, even to a limited extent, the various dialects of the cantons. Could these obstacles, however, be satisfactorily surmounted, there is but little doubt that the Swiss character would offer no more impediment to

their welfare and comfort than the German operative everywhere experiences from the native industrial classes.

The following figures show the proportions per cent which the various classes in Switzerland relatively bear to the population at large :—

Agricultural class	44·4
Industrial ditto	34·5
Trades	7
Liberal professions and Government offices ..	3·9
Domestic servants	6·3
Persons without professions	3·9
	100

(Signed) A. G. G. BONAR.

Inclosure 2 in No. 12.

Comparison between the Wages and the Board Wages.

Basle.	Wages for Piecework.			Weekly Wages.			Board and Lodging.
	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	
	s. *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.* *s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.* *s.* *d.*	
Weavers—							Board, for a man, 7 to 8 francs weekly.
Men ..	19 2	10 10	15 0	13 2	8 4	12 10	Lodging, ditto, 1 to 2 francs weekly.
Women							Board, for a woman, 5 to 6 francs weekly.
Children ..	15 0	..	..	7 1	3 4 to 2 6	5 0 to 3 4	Lodging, ditto, 1 to 1·50 francs weekly.
Warpers—							Lodging for a family of 3 to 4 persons, 1*l.* 9*s.* 2*d.* to 2*l.* quarterly.
Women ..	13 4	6 8	8 4 to 10 0	9 7	6 8	7 6	
Winders—							
Women ..	11 5½	6 10	7 6 to 8 4	Master-journeymen in the Ribbon Manufactory : 12*s.* 6*d.* to 1*l.* 8*s.* 4*d.*			
Twiners—							
Women ..	12 1	6 3	7 6 to 8 4	..	..	..	
Drawers-in—							
Men ..	..	..	..	10 10	5 10	7 1	
Women							
Dyers—							
Men	19 7	12 6	13 4 to 14 2	..	..	..	
Women ..	..	..	..	10 0	6 8	7 6	
Finishers—							
Men	15 0	10 10	12 6	..	..	..	
Women ..	..	..	..	8 4	7 6	7 6	
Silk-spinners—							
Men	11 3	8 6	10 0	11 3	8 2	10 0	
Women ..	10 0	5 10	7 6	10 0	7 0	7 6	
Children ..	..	..	..	6 8	4 2	5 5	

	Wages for Piecework.			Weekly Wages.			Board and Lodging.
	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	
Aarau.	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.* *s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.* *s. d.*	
Weavers—							Board, 4*s.* 2*d.* to 5*s.*
Men	15 0	8 9	10 0	..	..	..	
Women ..	12 6	7 6	8 6	..	..	..	
Children ..	..	..	7 6	..	..	..	
Warpers—							
Women }	..	..	..	7 6	4 0	5 0	
Children }							
St. Etienne.							
Weavers, ribbons—							
Women ..	12 6	5 6	7 6 to 8 6	8 0	3 9	6 0	Board, 3*s.* 4*d.*
Crèpe ou foulard ..	9 0	3 11	6 0	7 0	3 0	5 0	
Elberfeld.							
Weavers—							
Men .. }	18 9	10 10	14 2	..	..	..	Board and lodging, for a man, 8 francs 75 c. weekly.
Women }							
Warpers—							
Women ..	15 10	7 1	10 8	..	..	..	
Winders—							
Women ..	13 4	5 7½	9 4½	..	..	..	
Drawers-in—							
Women ..	..	..	7 3½	..	..	..	
Cleaning—							
Women ..	..	..	5 10	..	..	..	
Lyons.							
Weaver	..	..	..	..	..	7 4 to 8 9	
Winder	..	..	..	..	..	5 0 to 6 3	
Spuling-mill tender ..	..	..	..	..	..	5 0	
Warping-mill tender ..	..	..	..	..	..	5 0 to 6 3	

	Wages for Piecework.			Weekly Wages.			Board and Lodging.
	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	
ZURICH.	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	
Winders	..	..	5 0 to 8 4	Only overseers, mechanics, and preparers receive from 12 francs weekly to 150 francs monthly.			In the city of Zurich 7*l.* 4*s.* 2*d.* to 8*l.* a-year is paid for lodging for a family of 4 to 5 persons.
Weavers	..	..	5 0 to 8 4				5*s.* 5*d.* weekly is paid for board and lodging for 1 person.
Warpers	..	..	8 4 to 10 0				In the country from 3*l.* 4*s.* 2*d.* to 4*l.* 16*s.* 8*d.* is paid for lodging, with place for 2 looms, a chamber, kitchen, and 3 small rooms, according to the distance.
Twiners—							Winders pay for board and place for a wheel, weekly, 3*s.* 4*d.* to 4*s.* 2*d.*
Women ..	10 0	4 2	7 6	..	..	..	Weavers for board and a place for a loom, 2*s.* 11*d.* to 3*s.* 11*d.* weekly.
Children ..	6 3	2 11	4 2	..	..	..	Warpers for board and place for a frame, 4*s.* 2*d.* to 5*s.* weekly.
Spinners—							Lodging, 4*l.* 8*s.* 4*d.* to 5*l.* 4*s.* 2*d.* for a family of from 4 to 6 persons.
Women ..	10 0	5 0	7 6	..	..	..	Ditto, 3*l.* 13*s.* to 4*l.* 4*s.* 2*d.* for a family of from 2 to 3 persons.
Children ..	6 10	2 11	3 11	..	..	..	Board and lodging, 4*s.* 2*d.* to 6*s.* 8*d.* weekly.
Spinners—							
Men	12 1	7 6	..	..	..	9 0	
Women ..	9 2	5 10	..	..	..	7 11	
Children ..	5 5	3 4	..	..	..	5 0	
Weavers—							
Men	10 10	5 5	8 4	..	..	9 0	
Women ..	10 5	5 5	7 11	..	..	7 11	
Children ..	..	..	..	..	..	5 10	
Dyers—							
Men	15 10	4 6	10 0	..	..	9 0	
GLARUS.							
Printers—							
Men ..	16 8	10 0	13 4	..	..	..	Board and lodging for a man, 5*s.* 8*d.* to 6*s.* 8*d.* weekly.
Women ..	10 0	4 2	6 8	..	..	..	
Children ..	5 0	2 6	3 11	..	..	..	
Pattern makers—							
Men ..	20 0	16 8	18 4	..	..	..	
Folders—							
Women ..	8 4	5 0	6 8	..	..	..	
Children ..	5 0	..	..	..	..	..	

	Wages for Piecework.			Weekly Wages.			Beard and Lodging.
	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	
GLARUS—*continued.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.* *s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.* *s. d.*	
Labourers—							
Men ..	..	..	..	15 0	7 6	6 8	
Women ..	..	..	..	8 4	..	5 0	
Children ..	..	..	..	..	3 0	..	
Spinners and weavers—							
Men	16 3	10 0	13 6½	11 0	7 6	6 0	
Women ..	10 0	6 0	7 6	9 0	6 0	4 6	
Children ..	..	..	..	10 0	6 8	5 3	
ST. GALL.							
Loom weavers on dyed goods—							
Men	13 4	5 0	10 0	..	..	..	Board and lodging at St. Gall, 5*s.* to 5*s.* 10*d.* for a labourer.
Women ..	13 4	5 0	8 4	..	..	..	
Children ..	..	5 0	6 8	..	..	..	Ditto at Wyl, 4*s.* 2*d.*
Hand-loom weavers on sized warps—							
Men	10 0	5 0	7 6	..	..	..	
Women ..	10 0	4 2	7 6	..	..	..	
Children ..	..	3 4	5 10	..	..	..	
Hashing-machine tenter	18 4	14 2	15 0 to 15 10	..	..	..	
Warpers—							
Women ..	10 0	6 8	8 4	..	..	..	
Winders—							
Children ..	6 0	2 6	4 6	..	..	..	
Finishers and dyers ..	12 6	10 0	11 0	..	..	..	
Labourers	..	..	..	10 0	..	..	

Mulhausen.	Wages for Piecework.						Weekly Wages.						Board and Lodging.
	Highest.		Lowest.		Average.		Highest.		Lowest.		Average.		
	s.	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	
Spinners	15	5	11	3	13	4	..		..		..		Board and lodging for a labourer, 7*s.* 1*d.* weekly.
Weavers	10	5	6	2	7	6	..		..		..		
Big-piecers	7	11	6	3	6	3	..		..		..		
Little-piecers—													
Children ..	..		..		4	0	..		..		..		
Printers—													
Men	..		..		13 4 to 15	0	..		..		12 6 to 15	0	
Women ..	..		..		6 10 to 8	9	..		..		5 10 to 8	11	
Children ..	..		..		3 4 to 4	2	..		..		5 10 to 8	11	

Inclosure 3 in No. 12.

Comparison of Wages and Cost of Living.

Felsenau, Berne.	Wages for Piecework.			Weekly Wages.			Board and Lodging.
	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	
	s. d.	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	Fr. Fr.
Fileurs—							Provision and lodging—
Men	13 4	10 0	11 0	..	..	..	For a man.. .. 7 to 8 per week.
Rattacheurs—							For a woman .. 6 7 ,,
Children ..	8 4	6 8	7 6	..	..	..	For a child .. 5 6 ,,
Bobineurs—							
Children ..	5 10	4 2	5 0	..	..	..	Rent for lodging with kitchen, cabinet, and two bed-rooms, quite sufficient for a family of 6 to 7 members, about 150 francs per annum.
Dévideurs—							
Women ..	10 10	7 6	9 2	..	..	..	For a similar lodging with three bed-rooms, sufficient for 10 to 12 members, 170 francs, in the houses constructed by employers for their workpeople. Lodgings in town or the environs are almost double in price.
Babroches-arbeiterinnen							
Women ..	10 0	7 6	8 9	..	..	..	
Carderie-arbeiter—							
Men	..	..	..	12 6	10 0	11 3	
Batteursarbeiter—							
Men	..	..	..	11 8	9 2	10 5	
Women ..	..	..	..	8 4	7 6	7 11	
Labourers—							
Men	..	..	..	10 10	9 2	10 0	

Filature de MM. De Grafenried et Hengzeln, à Berne.

No. 13.

Sir A. Buchanan to the Earl of Clarendon.—(Received January 17.)

My Lord, *St. Petersburgh, January* 12, 1870.

With reference to your Lordship's Circular of the 30th of April, instructing Her Majesty's Secretary of Embassy to furnish you as soon as possible with a report on the question of the artizan and industrial classes in this country, I have the honour to inclose a memorandum on the subject drawn up (in consequence of Mr. Rumbold's absence on leave) in the Chancery of this Embassy, embodying information which has been furnished to me by Mr. Edward Gibson, the present Acting Treasurer of the British Factory, and other gentlemen engaged in manufactures here, and by Mr. McGill, an English gentleman at Moscow, who is well acquainted with the numbers and the circumstances of the persons employed in manufactories in the neighbourhood of that capital.

I have, &c.

(Signed) ANDREW BUCHANAN.

Inclosure in No. 13.

Memorandum on the Industrial Classes in Russia.

St. Petersburgh, January 12, 1870.

It is not easy to state at all accurately the proportion which the number of Russians employed in industrial pursuits—exclusive of the agricultural population—bears to the other classes. The census now taking place will throw further light on the subject.

The difficulty arises in great measure from the existence of a very numerous class of nomads; for independently of those employed in the internal navigation, carpenters, bricklayers, stone masons, painters, joiners, and other artizans are in the habit of flocking into the great towns in the spring and of returning to their villages in the autumn. These would figure in the returns as inhabitants of villages, and be included among the agricultural class to which they do not belong. On the other hand many peasants seek work in the towns during the winter.

The following is a very rough estimate of the numbers employed in various manufactures in Russia :—

	Hands.
Cotton—	
Spinning mills	50,000
Weaving „	70,000
Hand loom weavers, reelers, &c.	100,000
Calico printing, dying, bleaching, &c.	50,000
Total number employed in cotton manufacture ..	270,000
Wool—	
Spinning mills	5,000
Weaving „	25,000
Total employed in woollen manufacture ..	30,000
Flax—	
Spinning mills	8,000
Weaving „	12.000
Dressers, &c.	30,000
Total employed in flax manufacture ..	50,000
Hemp—	
Yarn spinning	4,000
Rope and cordage	4,000
Dressers	20,000
Total employed in hemp manufacture	28,000
Cloth—	
Weaving, dressing, &c.	70,000
Carpets—	
Sundry	2,000
Silk—	
Ribbons, &c.	1,500
Silks, &c.	7,000
Gauze	1,500
Total employed in silk manufacture	10,000
Iron..	150,000
Leather	30,000
Deals, &c.	20,000
Oils—	
Hemp, linseed, sunflower, &c.	15,000
Sugar	50,000
Total number of hands employed in the above manufactures	725,000

To the above must be added those engaged in glove, boot, hat, watch, carriage making, and other employments, no reliable statistics to arrive even approximately at their numbers being obtainable.

The agricultural labourers live almost entirely in houses of their own, which are throughout the empire constructed in the following simple fashion:—Logs of the red pine are cut into the required lengths, 3, 4, or 5 fathoms, according to the proposed size of the house. The lengths are placed one above the other, the ends being dovetailed together, thus forming as it were a hugh box of logs. The doors and windows are then cut out, and the pieces carefully numbered by notches, the box is now taken to pieces, and the actual building commences; this is done by placing the lowest tier on boulder stones and wooden posts for foundations, then each succeeding tier is added, moss or hemp and tow being used between each layer to fill up all interstices. The walls thus completed, floors and ceilings of red or white pine boards are added, both ceiling and flooring generally being double, with a layer of earth between, the whole is crossed over with boards. The roofing generally consisting of wooden tiles. In one corner of the room a large brick stove, similar to an English baking-oven, is built, a chimney, either of bricks (put loosely together without mortar) or of wood, is carried through the roof, and the house or hut is complete. Here the whole family lives. Generally the house contains but a single room, but sometimes a well-to-do peasant has a house of three or four rooms, and even uses plaster and paper-hangings for the walls of his hut; this is especially the case in the grain-growing Governments, such as Tamboff, Voroneje, Pensa, Saratoff, Samara, &c., where the peasantry are more industrious, better fed, housed, and clothed, than in the northern Governments.

The mill people in large towns or their suburbs for the most part live as lodgers in houses varying in size from the peasant's hut to large buildings of two or three stories, but in no case are comfort and cleanliness taken into consideration. The rooms are generally small, low, badly ventilated and crowded; the same room is used for sleeping and eating; shelves or benches serve as beds; the occupants are generally only known to each

other from working at the same mill, very few indeed are members of the same family, and children even where employed in the same neighbourhood as their parents seldom live with them. Separate sleeping apartments are almost unknown, save in the case of the superior workmen who rise to be overlookers, foremen, &c., these men have often neat, tidy lodgings, and live with some regard to appearances. It is a general practice among mill hands to form themselves into Artels, a kind of club, consisting, according to the size of the room, of 5, 10, 18, 20, or even a greater number of members. Each Artel will engage a woman as cook, appoint a treasurer to encash monthly the subscriptions due to the general fund for provisions, &c. The food of the workmen generally consists of black bread, fresh and salt fish, soup from cabbage and meat, potatoes, mushrooms, cucumbers, &c. Tea, corn brandy, quass, and beer, are the beverages. Beer has gained great favour with the mill hands, both in St. Petersburgh and Moscow, otherwise it is very little drunk by the poorer classes.

As a rule, in the neighbourhood of large towns the people live much better, generally at an average rate of about 1*l.* per month, per man; at other places, however, the living is very wretched, the food consisting of little else besides black bread and water, and occasionally only a little tea, the living in this case costing only about 5*s.* or 6*s.* per month. With the extension of the railway system the wages and style of living are improving even in the more remote districts.

Of late years some mill owners have adopted the plan of providing lodgings for their work people, and in many instances have built large houses constructed on sanitary principles; here the people are divided into three classes, the married, the unmarried men, and the unmarried women, to each is allotted a separate house or part of the house; the supervision of the lodgings is entrusted to competent persons, and an extent of cleanliness and comfort is attained which would be quite impossible to arrive at in any other way, the inmates pay for their lodgings according to the size or the number of rooms occupied by them, the amount due for rent being deducted every month from their wages. Under this system a single man will pay from 3*s.* to 6*s.* a-month,

married men from 6*s*. to 9*s*. Attached to these houses there is generally a store where the people can purchase the necessaries of life, of good quality and at reasonable prices; this store is under the control of the mill-owner or manager.

The hands work on an average thirteen hours per day, commencing at 5 A.M. in the summer, and at 5·30 A.M. in the winter, and stopping work at 8 P.M. An hour in the middle of the day, generally from 12 to 1, is allowed for dinner, and the operatives usually have a short time allowed for breakfast at 8 A.M., and again at 5 P.M.

Adults and children keep the same hours; but only very inconsiderable numbers of the latter are employed in mills.

A very elaborate set of rules, or rather laws, for defining the relations and responsibilities of the mill-owners towards his hands, and of the hands towards their employers, is now in the course of preparation by the Government. In these rules it is understood the hours of working, and ages of those employed, educational, sanitary, hospital, and other arrangements will be prescribed.

Some of the more wealthy mill-owners have already established hospitals in direct connection with their works; the ground and buildings being provided by the proprietor, while the hands generally support the hospitals by a payment of from ½ to 1 per cent. on their wages.

At several mills schools have been opened; no charge being made at some, while at others expenses are covered by the deduction of a small per-centage from salaries.

Workpeople are merely engaged verbally; the rules of the factory (which have previously received the sanction of the police authorities) are explained to them; they cannot leave their employment without giving a fortnight's or even a longer notice. The masters are bound by the police regulations not to engage any workpeople who are unprovided with passports duly visé.

All clerks, foremen, managers, &c., are obliged to have contracts drawn up on stamped paper, and duly witnessed by a notary (the value of the stamp on which

the contract is drawn up varying with the amount of the appointments received).

Wages vary considerably, and are dependent on a variety of causes, such as the locality, season of the year, &c. The lowest wages being paid in districts where hand-loom weavers abound.

Good mill hands make from 1*l.* 10*s.* to 3*l.* per month, and are often paid by piece work.

Fitters, ordinary mechanics, joiners, blacksmiths, &c., will earn from 3*s.* to 6*s.* a-day. Skilled mechanics, engine-drivers, engineers on river steamers, &c., earn very high wages—from 6*s.* to 10*s.* per day, and even more.

Many English are employed as masters and foremen.

As managers, very high salaries are paid, varying according to the size and importance of the undertaking under their care.

English foremen receive 4*l.* to 6*l.* a-week, with lodging, fuel, and light free. Apprentices generally receive from 10*s.* to 12*s.* a-month for the first year, increasing each succeeding one by a rouble a month.

In cotton mills, piecers, iron tenters, and reelers, generally get paid according to the amount of work done; the others are paid by the day.

Employment in Russia is, owing to the climate and severity of the winter, and other causes, very precarious; and in general it may be stated that there is no opening for the introduction of foreign labour, save of one kind, and that is skilled labour. Men who have good intelligence, and the power of self-restraint, with the faculty of commanding obedience, will find an opening for their abilities in Russia, whether as foremen in mills, engineers, or farmers.

Good servants, too, whether gardeners, coachmen, or household servants, command very high wages; and on the railways there will be many places to be filled. As a rule, however, in all more subordinate positions a German is more suitable than an Englishman, he is more frugal, thriftier, more easily satisfied, and generally is a better linguist.

Below is a Table giving the rates of wages per month at Moscow—the industrial centre of Russia—in the years 1860 and 1869, and also the prices of the chief articles of consumption:—

Cotton Mills.

		1860.			1869.		
		£	*s.*	*d.*	£	*s.*	*d.*
Mixing room—							
Cotton pickers	women	0	12	11	0	14	8
Scutching—							
Overlookers	men	1	7	5½	1	14	8
Tenters	„	0	17	4	1	0	0
Card room—							
Overlookers	„	1	18	8	2	6	8
Strippers	„	1	2	0	1	5	2
Grinders	„	1	2	3¼	1	5	5
Drawing tenters	women	0	13	3	0	15	0
Speed tenters	„	0	17	5½	0	18	11¼
„ piecers	girls	0	6	5	0	8	8
Overlookers	men	2	3	1¼	2	10	6
Male spinners	„	1	16	3	1	18	0
„ „ 1st piecers	boys	0	19	9	1	2	0
„ „ 2nd „	„	0	15	7	0	17	4
„ „ scavengers	„	0	11	1	0	12	0
Throstle piecers	girls	0	8	6½	0	9	7
Reelers	women	0	17	1	0	18	11¼
Overlookers	men	2	0	0	2	8	0
Winders	women	0	16	5	0	16	5
Warpers	„	1	15	5½	1	10	11
Sizers	men	3	14	8	2	4	0
Heald knitters	girls	0	17	4	0	16	0
Weavers	men and women	1	13	4	1	12	8
Enginemen		2	1	4	2	8	8
Stokers	men	1	2	5	1	8	4½
Oilers	„	1	1	4	1	6	8
Mechanics		2	3	4	2	8	0
Blacksmiths		2	8	0	2	14	8
Boiler makers		3	6	8	4	0	0
Moulders		2	6	8	2	13	4
Joiners		1	12	11¼	2	5	4
Pattern makers		2	5	4	2	16	0
Packers		1	8	0	1	18	8
Storemen		0	18	8	1	4	0
Gasmen		1	3	9	1	6	8
Watchmen		0	15	5½	0	16	1½
Day labourers		0	17	7	1	0	9½
Carters		1	1	4	1	6	8

Clerks in 1869 from 1*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* to 4*l.*

Flax Mills.

		1860.			1869.		
		£	*s.*	*d.*	£	*s.*	*d.*
Ruffers	men	2	0	0	2	0	0
Sorters	„	2	8	0	2	8	0
Machine hacklers	men and boys	0	17	4	0	16	0
Spreaders	women	0	17	4	0	17	4
Carder spreaders	„	0	17	4	0	16	0
Drawers	„	0	14	8	0	14	8
Rovers	„	0	16	0	0	16	0
Spinners	women and children	0	16	0	0	16	0
Doffers		0	10	8	0	10	8
Bobbin carriers	boys	1	1	4	0	18	8
Twisters	boys and girls	0	18	8	0	18	8
Band tiers	boys	0	18	8	0	18	8
Reelers	women	1	5	4	1	5	4
Dryers	men	1	6	8	1	0	0
Bleachers	„	1	5	4	1	1	4
Winders	women and girls	0	14	8	0	14	8
Piecers	girls	0	13	4	0	10	8
Warpers	women	1	6	8	1	6	8
Dressers	men	1	17	4	2	0	0
Weavers	boys and women	0	17	4	0	18	8
Cloth pickers	boys	1	1	4	0	17	7
Callenderers	men	1	1	4	1	14	8
Reel makers	boys	1	1	4	1	6	8
Heald knitters	boys and girls				0	8	5
Packers	men	1	1	4	1	6	8
Enginemen		2	5	4	2	0	0
Stokers	men	1	4	0	1	12	0
Shaft oilers	„	1	1	4	1	1	4
Mechanics	„	1	1	4	1	1	4
Blacksmiths	„	2	17	4	2	17	4
Model makers	„	3	4	0	3	4	0
Joiners	„	3	4	0	2	8	0
Brass founders	„	2	13	4	2	13	4
Gasmen		1	6	8	1	6	8
Watchmen		1	1	4	1	1	4
Day labourers		1	0	0	1	1	4
Carters		1	2	8	1	6	8
Sweepers	boys and men	0	16	0	0	18	8
Clerks		3	9	4	4	0	0

Overlookers from 1*l.* 4*s.* to 3*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*

Bleach, Dye, and Print Works.

	1860.			1869.		
	£	*s.*	*d.*	£	*s.*	*d.*
Labourers in laboratory and about printing machines .. .. .. men	1	1	4	1	6	8
Workpeople about agency room, dyehouse, and callenderers.. .. men and women	0	18	8	1	4	0
Overlookers about agency room, dyehouse, and callenderers.. .. .. men	1	6	8	2	0	0
Packers . .. . „	1	6	8	2	0	0
Engineers .. .. .. „	3	4	0	4	13	4
Overlookers .. .. .. „	2	0	0	2	5	4
Wool washers .. .. .. „	1	2	8	1	5	4
Card cleaners .. .. .. „	1	2	8	1	6	8
„ feeders .. .. .. women	0	12	0	0	13	4
Comb tenters .. .. .. „	0	13	4	0	16	0
Drawing „ .. .. .. „	0	13	4	0	14	8
Roving „ .. .. .. „	0	11	4	0	13	4
Twisters. .. .. .. „	0	10	8	0	13	4
Spinners .. .. .. girls	0	11	4		..	
Reelers .. .. .. women	0	17	4	1	1	4

Woollen Manufacture.

	1860.			1869.		
	£	*s.*	*d.*	£	*s.*	*d.*
Overlookers .. .. .. men	2	2	8	2	13	4
Card cleaners .. .. .. „	1	1	4	1	4	0
„ tenters .. .. .. women	0	10	8	0	12	7½
Shearing .. .. .. „	0	12	0	0	12	7½
Weavers .. .. .. „	1	4	0	1	6	8
Cloth cleaners .. .. .. „	1	0	0	0	18	8
Wool washers .. .. .. men	1	2	8	1	2	8
Cloth dryers .. .. .. „	1	1	4	1	2	8
„ pressers .. .. .. „	1	4	0	1	4	0
Spinners. .. .. .. boys	0	10	8	0	12	0
„ .. .. men	1	17	4	2	2	8

Glass Works.

	1860.						1869.					
	£	*s.*	*d.*	£	*s.*	*d.*	£	*s.*	*d.*	£	*s.*	*d.*
Glass blowers	1	6	8 to	2	2	0	1	14	8 to	2	18	8
Rough polishers	1	4	0 to	2	2	8	1	6	8 to	2	8	0
Cutlers	1	17	4 to	2	5	4	1	14	8 to	3	6	8
Designers	1	6	8 to	2	0	0	1	9	4 to	2	5	4
Gilders	0	8	0 to	1	9	4	..		..	0	14	0
Assistants to blowers boys	..		..	0	5	4	..		..	0	11	4
Mixers of materials at furnace	..		..	1	12	0	..		..	3	6	8
Hardeners .. .. boys	..		..	0	12	0	..		..	1	1	4
Storers and packers.. men	..		..	0	6	0	..		..	1	6	8

Paper Mills.

	1869.					
	£	*s.*	*d.*		£	*s.*	*d.*
Overlookers	2	0	0	to	2	8	0
Workmen	1	1	4	to	1	6	8
Workwomen	0	13	4	to	0	16	0

Average cost of food per month for—

	£	*s.*	*d.*
One man	0	12	8
One woman	0	9	7
One child	0	8	0

	1860.			1869.		
	£	*s.*	*d.*	£	.	*d.*
Flour—Black .. .. .. per cwt.	0	6	7	0	9	1
„ White, best .. .. „	0	19	0	1	3	1
„ „ 2nd .. .. „	0	15	8	0	16	6
„ „ 3rd .. .. „	0	14	10	0	14	10
Buckwheat .. .. per measure	0	4	9½	0	3	5½
Wheat .. .. .. „	0	4	3	0	4	9½
Malt .. .. per cwt.	0	7	5	0	13	3
Salt .. .. „	0	7	5	0	8	3
Peas .. .. .. per measure	0	11	7	0	14	10
Oil (used during fasts) .. .. per cwt.	2	8	0	2	13	0
„ (sunflower)	2	15	5	4	12	8
Butter .. .. per lb.	0	0	8	0	0	9
Small fish .. .. .. „	0	0	3	0	0	4½
Beef—1st sort .. .. .. „	0	0	4	0	0	4½
„ 2nd sort .. .. .. „	0	0	3¼	0	0	3½
Salted beef .. .. .. per cwt.	1	3		1	13	1

Potatoes in 1869 cost from 3*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* to 4*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* per measure.

In the larger towns the towns the price of the best beef and mutton often runs as high as 8¾*d.* per lb.

On the whole, therefore, the increase in the chief articles of consumption, during the last ten years, may be roughly stated to be at the rate of from 30 to 50 per cent., but the rates of wages have increased in an equal, and in many cases in a greater proposition. The condition of the Russian artizan has improved very materially during late years, and were it not for the lowering of the duty on the already too cheap "vodka" (corn brandy), the working class in Russia would be comparatively speaking well off.

No. 14.

Mr. Layard to the Earl of Clarendon.—(*Received January* 22.)

My Lord, *Madrid, January* 15, 1870.

I HAVE the honour to inclose a Report on the condition of the industrial classes in Spain, which, in obedience to the instructions contained in your Lordship's Circular of the 30th April, 1869, has been drawn up by Mr. Ffrench.

I have, &c.

(Signed) A. H. LAYARD.

Inclosure in No. 14.

Mr. Ffrench to the Earl of Clarendon.

My Lord, *Madrid, January* 5, 1870.

IN obedience with the instructions contained in your Lordship's Circular of the 30th April last, requiring information on the position of the artizan and industrial classes in this country, I have the honour to state that I lost no time in making application for the same to the different public offices where it might be procurable. I received constant assurances that it would be furnished to me, but after a lapse of four months was informed that no data could be procured. I have, therefore, been compelled to seek for private information, and believe the following details to be perfectly trustworthy, albeit somewhat scanty.

The impossibility of absenting myself from my post hitherto has prevented me from personally investigating the "status" of the two provinces in Spain, best calculated to afford the required information.

Cataluña and Valencia form two of the most important industrial provinces in Spain, the principal manufactures of the former consisting in cotton, which industry may be calculated to employ about 110,000 men, women, and children.

From 15,000 to 18,000 hands are employed in manufactures of silk, wool, and flax.

It would be very difficult to form an estimate of the

proportion borne by other artizans to that of the above mentioned classes, such as masons, carpenters, bakers, shoemakers, but in round numbers they are supposed to average about five or six to one of the population and amount to about 600,000 souls.

Wages in Cataluña are generally paid in the form of salaries. Those received by weavers and spinners average from 17 to 20 pesetas (12*s.* to 16*s.*) per week, but in many instances their pay does not exceed 2 pesetas per diem.

The lodgings occupied by factory hands and artizans in Barcelona generally consist of flats, or half flats, or single rooms in large houses, there known by the designation of barracks, and constructed by speculators for the purpose of letting them out to the working classes, in the country villages families often provide themselves with small houses which they occupy themselves. In all cases the furniture is generally poor and scanty, though this may be considered of less importance in the southern provinces where the mildness of the climate diminishes the demands for indoor comfort.

6. There is no opening at present for any foreign operatives in Cataluña, nor any likelihood of such, unless some new industry were to be founded which would nesessitate the employment of foreigners.

The above mentioned details apply to the entire province of Cataluña. It is impossible to obtain any accurate return of the exact number of hands employed in the factories of Barcelona itself, but it may be worthy of mention that a strong tendency has for some time been evinced for removing a considerable portion of the manufacturing industry from Barcelona to the interior of the province. Water power is being developed as a new and economical adjunct, and the high claims put forward by the Barcelonese operatives often enforced by "strikes," tend every day to the forwarding of this movement.

Valencia.

A general stagnation is at present reigning in the labour market of Valencia, owing to the late political struggles which have checked all industry, and all outlay of capital either on building or any other commercial

enterprises. Many of the proprietors in the neighbourhood of Valencia, have been unable to visit their estates on account of the bands of robbers that under pretext of political disturbances infest them.

The dwelling houses of the labourers in the Kingdom of Valencia are built of brick, and are generally divided into flats, of which there are a ground floor and two stories. Each flat is divided into two apartments, thus giving six dwellings in each house, each containing an ante-room, two sleeping rooms, a kitchen, and water-closet. The average rent paid for these dwellings is from 40 to 50 reals (8*s*. 4*d*. to 10*s*. 5*d*.) per month.

There are also larger houses for families, usually rented by some one who directs the whole establishment, and sub-lets the apartments according to a contract previously made with the landlord.

Ordinary labourers usually earn from 7 to 8 reals (1*s*. 5½*d*. to 1*s*. 8*d*.) in the town. In the country they are paid 5 reals (1*s*. 0½*d*.) per diem in the winter, and from 7 to 8 reals (1*s*. 5*d*. to 1*s*. 8*d*.) in summer.

Those who are not regularly employed, assemble daily in the principal squares of Valencia and of the country towns or villages, and there wait on the chance of being hired for the day or by task-work.

The following Table will give the scale of wages paid to the different artizans in this province :—

Masons.—Ten to 12 reals (2*s*. 1*d*. to 2*s*. 6*d*.) per diem to head masons ; 5 to 6 reals (1*s*. to 1*s*. 3*d*.) per diem to working masons.

The working hours depend on the season of the year, but are generally from sunrise to sunset, half an hour being allowed for breakfast and two hours for dinner.

Carpenters and *Smiths* earn from 10 to 12 reals per diem (paid weekly), and working from daybreak until 8 o'clock P.M. between the 29th of October and the 18th of March; and from 7 A.M. to 7 P.M. between March and October.

Silk Weavers are divided into two classes, *i.e.*, master weavers and workmen, the former receiving the silk from the manufacturers and weaving it in their own houses. They provide the workmen with looms, &c., and charge them from $\frac{25}{100}$ of a real to 4 reals (½*d*. to 10*d*.) per yard of silk woven for the use of the same.

This branch of industry has diminished so consider-

ably that the workmen can barely earn from 6 to 8 reals (1*s.* 3*d.* to 1*s.* 8*d.*) a day.

A considerable number of women find employment in preparing the silk previous to its being woven, as well as in weaving handkerchiefs and plain silks. They generally earn from 4 to 5 reals (10*d.* to 1*s.* 0½*d.*) a day, and their hours of labour also extend from sunrise to sunset.

Shoemakers are paid on an average 9 reals (1*s.* 10½*d.*) a day, working eleven hours, and receiving their wages weekly. Women employed in this trade earn 4 reals (10*d.*) per diem.

Saddlers.—Those of the first class are paid weekly, and earn 10 reals (2*s.* 1*d.*) a day, working from 7 A.M. to 1 P.M., and from 2 P.M. to 7 P.M. Those of the second class earn from 6 to 8 reals (1*s.* 3*d.* to 1*s.* 8*d.*) a day, and apprentices from 2 to 3 reals (5*d.* to 7*d.*)

Tailors.—Ten reals (2*s.* 1*d.*) a day, paid weekly, and those of the second class 5 to 7 reals (1*s.* 0½*d.*), apprentices 2 to 3 reals (5*d.* to 7½*d.*)

Seamstresses, working in their own houses, earn from 4 to 7 reals (10*d.* to 1*s.* 5½*d.*) per diem, and for tasks, such as a pair of trousers, 10 reals (2*s.* 1*d.*); a waistcoat, 10 reals (2*s.* 1*d.*); a large cloak, 50 to 60 reals (10*s.* 6*d.* to 12*s.* 6*d.*)

Hatters.—First class, 16 reals (3*s.* 4*d.*); second class, 11 reals (2*s.* 3½*d.*); women (binders), 4 reals (10*d.*); apprentices, 3 reals (7½*d.*)

Fan Makers.—Twenty reals (4*s.* 2*d.*) a day; painters, 10 to 12 reals a day (2*s.* 1*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.*; women, 3 to 6 reals a day (7½*d.* to 1*s.* 3*d.*)

Chocolate Makers are paid 12 reals (2*s.* 6*d.*) for every 28 lbs., which is the utmost quantity that can be manufactured in a day, the process of making the paste, grinding it on marble slabs with stone rollers, the men performing it on their knees causing extreme fatigue.

Cigar Makers.—The men earn 10 reals (2*s.* 1*d.*) a day, the women 4 reals (10*d.*) a-day, coming sometimes from great distances, and returning to their homes in the evening.

Servants.—Cooks (women) earn from 12*s.* 6*d.* to 1*l.* 5*s.* a month; men-servants the same; coachmen, 1*s.* 8*d.* a day (with lodging); quai porters, 20 reals (4*s.* 2*d.*) a day.

The ordinary food of the working classes in Valencia consists of dried cod or tunny-fish, capsicums, bread, fruit, and red wine for breakfast, and a thick soup composed of rice, beans, parsnips, and olives, for their dinner.

Andalusia.

The position of the labouring classes in this province is, morally and physically, bad. Their pay is generally insufficient, their food scanty, and their wearing apparel of the coarsest and commonest description. They live on bread and vegetables in the winter, and principally on "gaspacho" (a species of cold soup composed of slices of cucumber and bread steeped in vinegar and water).

They are in general very ignorant, albeit intelligent, 80 per cent. of them being unable either to read or write. They are prone to idleness, proud and independent, and very excitable, but, generally speaking, not disaffected towards their employers.

The rate of wages in this province usually ranges from 4 to 6 reals (10*d.* to 1*s.* 5*d.*) per diem for labouring men.

The artizans are more discontented in character than the ordinary labourers, more immoral and irregular in their habits, although far superior in intelligence and material circumstances; they are paid at no fixed rate, but according to their ability, and earn on an average from 12 to 20 reals (2*s.* 6*d.* to 4*s.* 2*d.*) per diem.

The dwelling-houses in Andalusia are usually small, poor, and uncomfortable. Three or four families generally inhabiting the same house, contracts between landlord and tenant are made for a period of two or three years, but are frequently broken by the labourers, owing to their leaving their service at a moment's notice without any previous warning.

Andalusia is eminently an agricultural district, and the industrial element is less extensive there than in most of the other provinces of Spain. The principal of these consist in wine, oil, sugar, soap, tobacco, liquorice paste, fans, gloves, and preserved fruits; a certain amount of quicksilver, copper, manganese, and other ores are, or were, extracted from the mines, but this branch of industry has slackened considerably within the last year.

A certain facility for raising loans upon agricultural property has been and is still afforded by a charitable institution of very ancient origin known by the name of "positos" (deposits), and it may be of interest to your Lordship to learn its nature and bearings.

By means of this institution the needy agriculturalist is enabled to cultivate his land, as it lends him grain in the sowing season, which he repays at harvest-time with a trifling interest.

It was originally founded by munificent contributions from some of the wealthier proprietors of the soil, and the operations of the institution were then limited to the neighbourhood of Toledo, Alcala, and a few other towns in Castile; in the course of years, and through an increase of charitable donations, the system was gradually extended to the whole of Spain, and at the present day there are few villages in Spain where its beneficial effects are not more or less experienced (or might be were the system properly carried out, but I am informed that in Valencia it has fallen completely into disuse).

The grain ceded for the purposes of the above institution is placed under the charge of municipal corporations, by whom it is distributed during the winter months among the indigent proprietors proportionally with the extent of land that they may wish to cultivate and with their general circumstances.

This advance or loan of grain is made subject to the condition that the quantity advanced shall be repaid in due season (at the ensuing harvest) with interest thereon never amounting to more than 3 per cent., satisfactory guarantees being taken for the due fulfilment of the contract.

The affairs of this institution have always been directed and protected by legislative enactments, specially framed for the regulation of its administration, and it is supposed to be on the whole successful in its operations.

Of course, abuses are not unfrequently committed by the Alcades and other Municipal Officers to whom the charge and direction of the institution is intrusted, and the grain deposited in their hands often becomes a matter for private speculation, when changes in the prices of the corn market admit of a profitable "coup" being effected by trafficking in this article. However,

notwithstanding its defects and shortcomings, no system of relief has conduced so largely to the happiness and well-being of the poorer agricultural population of this country, in so great a degree as that of the "positos," and it has proved an invaluable palliation in seasons of dearth and famine.

I have, &c.

(Signed) T. PERCY FFRENCH.

No. 15.

Report by Mr. Ford on the Condition of the Industrial Classes in the United States.

Washington, December 31, 1869.

THERE are few countries in which the working man is held in such repute as in the United States of America.

The labouring classes may be said to embrace the entire American nation.

Every man works for a living, follows a profession, or is engaged either in mercantile or industrial pursuits.

The prosecution of the humblest calling acts as no bar to promotion in the social scale.

The lowly citizen of to-day may aspire to Presidential honours to-morrow.

The steady influx of immigrants within the last twenty years has produced a marked effect on Americans in their choice of occupations, and has created a decided disinclination on their part to share in the rough toil of purely muscular labour in which the newly arrived foreigner is ready to engage.

The American system of common school education has elevated the moral standard of the native working man, and has disposed him to prefer those occupations in which the exercise of the brain is in greater demand than that of the elbow. His chief object of ambition is to attain to the position of a master workman, or, in the parlance of the country, to become a "boss," or to obtain a situation of clerk in an office, or of assistant in a shop, and rather than engage in work which he may deem derogatory to his moral culture, he will follow the

setting sun and settle on the public lands of the country which the National Government offers, at almost nominal prices, to any man who will cultivate them.

Nor are the labouring capacities of the nation likely to be perceptibly strained for want of hands so long as the tide of emigration flows to the shores of America, or so long as native ingenuity maintains its present high standard of merit in the invention of labour-saving machinery.

The excellent work, however, that was formerly performed by that class of smart educated young Americans who brought such varied intelligence to bear on anything they undertook, is met with no more.

A love of change, and a constant pursuit of fresh fields of industry has taken possession of the mind of American operatives, and a spirit of restlessness is noted in the working community that has sensibly affected the former reputation it enjoyed for mechanical skill.

The system of apprenticeship, moreover, has almost entirely disappeared, and Americans in general appear to begrudge the time necessary to make themselves thoroughly acquainted with the details of a business, and even those who have learnt one are very rarely found to follow it up.

The consequence has been that foreign is every day replacing native skilled labour.

Indeed, the great number of foreign workmen employed in all the branches of American industries is very remarkable.

Nearly all the hands at present in American cotton, woollen, and worsted mills, and in the foundries and rolling-mills of the country, are of recent foreign extraction.

Of the 30,000 miners engaged in the Pennsylvanian coal districts but few will be found who are not English, Welsh, or Irish. The largest proportion of manual work performed on railroads and canals falls to the lot of Irishmen, and in the clothing trades established in the great cities of the Union the German element preponderates, whilst the comparatively few Frenchmen in the country are met with in the barbers' shops.

It is a common remark in the United States that foreign workmen who come to this country seldom return to their native land with the intention, at least, of permanently residing there; and the inference is drawn

that the prosperity of the artizan class in America is superior to that abroad. To a certain extent this may be true, although, it must be admitted that, at the present time the high cost of living, and the fluctating condition of the irredeemable currency of the country, very seriously affect the interests of the working community. It is, moreover, reasonable to suppose that a residence of a few years in the United States, where the principle of "equality" is carried out to so high a degree, will often unfit a man, belonging to the artizan classes for living in the old countries of Europe where the relative positions of social life are so strictly defined and, as a rule, so vigorously enforced, and where the accident of birth is held of such account.

Married and single men, be they of sober and active habits, will find ample opportunities for improving their condition by emigrating to this country, and the peculiar educational advantages to be derived by the working classes in it cannot be overrated. Every man, woman, and child, has the means at his door of acquiring, gratis, an excellent course of instruction.

The exercise of electoral privileges invests the working man in America with an amount of consideration which he might perhaps not otherwise command. In the State of New York, for instance, the elections may be said to be almost entirely controlled by the working people, and most of the municipal offices are filled by persons who have risen from its ranks.

One cannot, however, refrain from regretting that the field of politics should have been so generally abandoned, by the higher class of American gentlemen, to a professed class of politicians in this country.

To no quarter of the globe can a man turn with so reasonable a chance of finding work as to the United States of America; nevertheless, let no man unadvisedly undertake so grave a step as expatriation, or forego the enjoyment, if in possession of it, of steady employment in the Old World for any prospective advantages to be derived in the New.

The wages of skilled workmen in the United States average from 9*s.* to 15*s.* a day, and that of unskilled workmen, such as labourers, teamsters, watchmen, &c., from 2*s.* 6*d.* to 7*s.* 6*d.*

Mr. Wells, the Special Commissioner of the Revenue,

after long and careful investigations on the subject, established the fact that up to the commencement of the year 1867, the general effect of the agencies growing out of the war had been to occasion an average advance in the price of commodities to the extent of about 90 per cent., while the corresponding average advance in wages was not in excess of 60 per cent. He estimated the average increase in the price of groceries and provisions in 1867, as compared with 1860-61, at 86 per cent.; of domestic goods, including clothing, at 86½ per cent.; of fuel, at 57 per cent.; and of house-rent, at 65 per cent.

The average increase of all the elements which constitute the food, clothing, and shelter of a family had increased about 78 per cent. as compared with the standard prices of 1860-61.

The increase in the cost of living falls, as a matter of course, heavier on married artizans. The skilled workmen, if single, are in receipt of wages averaging from 60 to 70 per cent. higher than in 1860-61, and they are in consequence approximatively in the same condition as before the war.

Since Mr. Wells wrote, prices at retail have not materially declined (wheat perhaps excepted), and the foreign artizan arriving in this country will be very much astonished at the enormous charges demanded for everything.

It has been remarked that the rise in prices caused by the war affected some articles of consumption more than others.

Prudent artizans were thus enabled, by the exercise of strict economy in the use of the dearer commodities, to derive full advantage of the increased rate of wages. The number of boys, too, who found work during the scarcity of the labour supply, at wages fully equal to the former adult tariff, helped to increase the family earnings of operatives.

Mr. Hemans, Her Majesty's Consul at Buffalo, in the State of New York, supplies the following facts in support of the proposition that the high price of living has not materially affected the condition of some classes of operatives:—

"About twelve years ago," he says, "one of the principal iron companies of Buffalo built cottages for their working-men in the immediate neighbourhood of

their works. About seventy of these cottages have been constructed, and ten of them are already actually owned by their occupants, who were allowed to pay off the purchase-money by easy instalments. In addition to these ten cottages the company have sold to their workmen about fifty lots of building land upon which to erect 'shanties' for themselves. All these cottages and all the lots of land have been purchased since the war."

The wages of the best class of skilled artizans, such as machinists, iron-workers, piano manufacturers, &c., appear to have kept pace with, and even to have exceeded the increase in the expense of living. This class is said to have been at no time so prosperous as at present.

The unusual activity existing in most of the manufacturing establishments of the country is greatly enhanced by the operation of the highly protective United States' Tariff, which has had the effect of artificially stimulating the fabrication of a variety of articles on which the American market is more or less dependent for its supply, and which are sold at exorbitant prices as compared with those which the similar class of goods would cost if they could be imported at reasonable duties into the country. The demand for skilled workmen is consequently great, and falls far short of the supply. In view, however, of the easy means of communication between Europe and the United States, foreign skilled workmen who may contemplate emigrating would do well to assure themselves previously as to the state of the particular trade in which they may desire to seek employment.

The fortunes of the respective branches of American manufactures are, at the best, of a fluctuating character, and an over-supply of any particular commodity, or an unforeseen manœuvre on the part of trades' unionists, may at any time produce a catastrophe, the evil effects of which are sure to fall on the working-man.

The depression of the woollen industry, and the disastrous strike in the coal regions during the present year may be instanced in support of the above assertion.

Number of the Artizan Class.

In reply to queries addressed to Her Majesty's Consular Agents in various parts of the United States, as to the proportion which the number of the artizan and industrial classes bear to that of the other classes, the following information has been obtained :—

Two-thirds of the population in the State of Maine are employed in manual labour. There are very few persons, says Mr. Consul Murray, excepting the aged and infirm, who are not employed in some way or other in the State.

The many openings for employing capital, and the high rate of interest generally obtainable for it, prevents it from lying idle in the hands of a people so busily-minded as are those of New England. In fact, any wealthy person living idly upon his property, is looked upon as a drone in the hive, and with a certain degree of contempt, for locking up capital which might be more usefully and generally employed.

The proportion that the industrial bears to the other classes in Illinois, is stated as about six to one.

In Pennsylvania the industrial and artizan classes far exceed any others.

In the manufacturing city of Philadelphia, the artizan class amounts to about five-sixths of the entire working population.

In the State of New York, the last census taken was in 1865. Since that date a considerable increase in the industrial and artizan classes is believed to have taken place. The total population of the State of New York, in 1865, as shown by the census, was (exclusive of 3,933 Indians residing in reservations) 3,827,818.

The following Statement of the industrial and artizan classes will show the total to have been, in 1865, 940,141, about 26 per cent. of the entire population of the State :—

Farmers	311,070
Labourers	142,261
Servants	108,350
Carpenters	33,155
Bootmakers and dealers	21,899
Tailors	21,847
Dressmakers and seamstresses	18,216
Blacksmiths	16,235

Painters, glaziers, and varnishers	10,817
Plasterers and bricklayers	10,675
Machinists	10,090
Brass-workers	9,933
Boat and watermen	8,848
Butchers	8,825
Coopers	7,912
Cabinet makers and dealers	6,704
Tobacconists	6,603
Railway men	6,300
Milliners	5,569
Printers	5,317
Laundresses	5,306
Coach and waggon makers	4,906
Bakers	4,780
Moulders	4,198
Factory operatives	4,197
Millers	4,083
Ship carpenters	4,133
Drivers and coachmen	4,000
Saddle, harness, and trunk-makers	3,983
Gardeners and florists	3,942
Stone and marble-cutters	3,736
Hat and cap makers	3,315
Other occupations not enumerated	118,935
Total	940,141

It will be remarked, that the number of gardeners and florists did not fall far short of that of bakers. The trade of a florist is a very remunerative one in this country, the Americans being particularly fond of flowers. It would be no exaggeration to state, that more bouquets are made up in a single month in the city of New York, than in the course of a whole year in the city of London.

According to the census taken in 1865, the population of Massachusetts, at that time, was 1,267,031; and the occupations of 445,746, or upwards of one-third of the whole population were classified as follows :—

Occupations of males—	
Mechanics	148,604
Agriculturists	59,116
Labourers	52,747
Merchants and clerks	42,496
Mariners and boatmen	18,798
Factory operatives	13,577
Professional men	9,914
Manufacturers	3,903
Miscellaneous	13,277
Total	362,432

Occupations of females—		
Domestics		27,393
Operatives		20,152
Teachers		6,050
Seamstresses		4,381
Shoe-workers		4,110
Tailoresses		3,855
Dressmakers		3,487
Milliners		2,388
Miscellaneous		11,498
Total		83,314
Total males employed		362,432
Total females employed		83,314
Total		445,746

The population of the State of Rhode Island in 1865, was 184,965, classified in the following manner :—

Number of persons whose occupations are given		65,059
Consisting chiefly of—		
Factory operatives	13,604	
Farmers	10,754	
Labourers	5,440	
Servants	3,503	
&c. &c.		
House-keepers, one to each family		39,208
Persons under 15 years of age		57,657
Persons of 70 years and over		5,091
Deaf and dumb, blind, insane, &c.		1,293
Total		168,308

Leaving 16,657 persons in the whole population unaccounted for. These were mostly females, living at home, and persons incapacitated for labour.

In the State of Maryland the proportion of the artizan and industrial classes to the other classes, is about three-fifths.

In the State of Virginia, about two-thirds of the mechanics are white. The labouring class in that State constitute about three-fifths of the entire population.

In South Carolina the proportion of the artizan and industrial classes is about two-ninths of the whole population of the State.

At Savannah, in the State of Georgia, with a population of about 40,000 souls, the artizan and industrial classes are in proportion five-eights; the mercantile

three-eights of the total number of persons employed in commerce, trade, and various branches of industry.

In the State of Alabama, one-third of the population are artizans and labourers.

In the city of New Orleans, 15 per cent. of the community are engaged in mechanical pursuits.

Mr. Wells, the Special Commissioner of the Revenue, estimates the whole number of persons, who, by their labour, add directly to the wealth of the country, at 10,000,000, out of a population of 39,000,000; and the total value of the annual product at 1,365,000,000*l.*

The values created by the leading industries of the country, are stated by Mr. Wells as follows:—

	£
Agriculture	656,590,000
Cotton manufacture	14,300,000
Woollen manufacture	13,200,000
Iron production, pig and bar	23,990,000
Leather manufactures	44,520,000
Railway service	72,000,000
Fisheries	20,000,000
Product of industrial classes remaining unenumerated	520,400,000
Total	1,365,000,000

The preponderating importance of the agricultural interests of this country, as shown by Mr. Wells' figures, cannot fail to excite surprise, when compared with the comparative insignificance of the values of American manufacturing industries, which, nevertheless, receive the lion's share of Congressional solicitude.

Openings for Labour.

The American labour market undoubtedly presents abundant openings for the introduction of labour from abroad. Nevertheless, a prudent selection of time and location is indispensable. Thus, whilst artizans might confidently rely on obtaining constant work in the City of Philadelphia, they would find a glutted market in the City of Chicago, where, it is stated, there are to-day 10,000 persons out of employment.

The demand for, and supply of, mechanics and labourers in the State of Massachusetts is represented

as being, at present, well balanced. It is exceedingly difficult, however, to obtain work there in the first instance.

Mr. Edwards, Her Majesty's Vice-Consul at New York, supplies the following information with regard to the condition of the labour market in the State of New York:—

"In a new country," he says, "like the United States, with its vast uncultivated tracts of fertile land, and its immense and undeveloped mineral wealth, the demand for labour of all kinds must necessarily be very great. At no time has the supply exceeded the demand, and perhaps at no time has that demand been greater than at present. The demand for artizans of a certain class, such, for instance, as stone-cutters, is very great, and cases have occurred recently in which a large number of them belonging to this trade might have found employment at wages ranging from 15*l.* to 20*l.* a-month, and when, even at these rates, but a very small portion of the requisite labour could be obtained.

For brickmakers, wages of from 3*l.* 12*s.* to 6*l.* 6*s.* a-month, with board and lodging, have been offered without exceeding the demand.

There has been an unprecedented request for cigar-makers; and the supply of weavers, tailors, cabinet-makers, locksmiths, and iron moulders, has fallen very short of the demand.

Women household servants are always largely in demand, but in this, as in most other cases, preference is given to all other nationalities before the Irish, and most of the orders for labour received in New York from other parts of the State, as well as from distant States, contain a provision that labourers of any other nationality will be preferred to those of Ireland."

The field for female domestic labour in the United States is unbounded, and the introduction of an orderly and respectful class of household servants would be a boon to the country at large. Except in those houses where negroes are employed, nearly every household is dependent, at present, for servants on the Irish who emigrate to this country, and that the nature of their service is, with rare exceptions (to say the least of it), highly unsatisfactory will be concurred in by any person who has resided in the United States.

It is a curious fact, in connection with the emigration of Irish, that although the majority come from agricultural districts of Ireland they settle down, as a rule, in the cities and towns of the United States. The contrary is the case in South America, where the majority of Irish are met with in the rural districts, particularly of the Argentine Republic. The cause, in the case of the United States, may be traced to the Roman Catholic clergy, who principally reside in the cities of the Union, and whose influence over the Irish population is very great.

"The amount of unskilled labour," Mr. Edwards reports, "supplied to railway contractors and the like, has not exceeded more than 12 per cent. of the demand of the country. Here, again, the very strongest prejudice exists against the Irishman, and, were it possible, contractors, as a rule, would not give them employment; but as labourers of no other nationality can be induced to work with them, and as the supply of this kind of labour is principally derived from that nation, contractors are constrained to engage them.

"The supply however of agriculturists has, perhaps, been that in which the greatest continued deficiency has been met with, and this has been experienced in an extraordinary degree since the beginning of the present year. The class of agriculturists which is preferred by proprietors, whether as permanent settlers, or as permanent farm hands, is those having wives and families."

It is the opinion of well-informed persons that the Southern States of the Union present to-day the most promising field for emigrants and labourers. One of the effects of emancipation has been to impair, to a great extent, the value of negro labour, and to raise, in a corresponding degree, that of white men; and it is predicted that the time is rapidly approaching when the great mass of the industrial population of the Southern States of the Union will be white.

Her Majesty's Consul at Mobile reports that the State of Alabama undoubtedly presents openings for the introduction of labour from without, and that in some of the cotton districts of the State there are hundreds of plantations totally uncultivated, in consequence of the owners being unable to procure labourers.

The State of Alabama likewise offers peculiar advantages for mining industry; vast beds of coal, and iron, of superior quality, are known to exist there, which, from want of capital, have hitherto been worked on a very limited scale.

The same remark applies to the State of Virginia.

Few of the Southern States of the Union have repaired the ravages committed by the late war so thoroughly as that of Georgia, and the introduction of operatives into it would be attended with success.

Her Majesty's Consul at Savannah reports that the artizan class is very well off there, and that throughout the State of Georgia, generally, wages are good and employment plentiful.

The industrial classes, he states, need never be without remunerative work to perform, and there is at Savannah more work than the force at hand can accomplish; and he particularly instances the following classes of workmen, who, if well grounded in their respective trades, would be very acceptable there, viz., joiners, plumbers, smiths, inside plasterers, house carpenters, and other skilled labour of almost every description.

In the State of Louisiana the number of mechanical pursuits is limited. Shoemakers, however, machinists, carpenters, bricklayers, plasterers, waggon-makers, coopers, tinsmiths, plumbers, &c., find constant employment.

Her Majesty's Consul at Galveston reports that the labour market is very deficient in the State of Texas. Owing, however, to the unhealthiness of the climate in that State, it is a less desirable place of residence than many others in which employment can be easily obtained.

There are few States of the Union in which an influx of steady reliable labourers would be so welcome at present as in the State of Virginia, and constant employment, remunerative wages, and good quarters can be counted on with certainty in it.

It was believed that the completion of the Pacific railroad, by affording a cheaper and easier means of communication between the Atlantic and Pacific States, would have attracted an influx of labourers from the East.

Mr. Booker, however, Her Majesty's Consul at San Francisco, reports that, so far as the labour market is concerned, no appreciable difference has taken place.

The men who were engaged in the construction of the railroad have either found work in the extensive mining regions beyond the Sierra Nevada, or have been conveyed by contractors to the lines of other roads in the State.

The supply of labour in California has not been, and still is, insufficient to meet the necessities of that portion of this country.

The demand has been principally for common labourers who can earn from 4*s.* to 12*s.* a day, and for carpenters who, owing to the increasing growth of towns, and fencing of farms, can find constant employment at wages varying from 12*s.* to 16*s.* a day.

Miners, blacksmiths, cooks, and boys are also in great demand. Domestic servants, who in England receive from 8*l.* to 10*l.* a year, find no difficulty in engaging themselves at from 4*l.* to 8*l.* a month in California. Boys, too, of from 12 to 16 years of age can earn from 2*l.* 8*s.* to 5*l.* a month in light work or apprenticeship. With regard to female labour, the demand for women and girls, in the country districts of California particularly, is reported as steady, and as far exceeding the supply. Urgent appeals are constantly received for household servants, who can find employment in comfortable homes situated in healthy localities.

In short, California is described as a paradise for female servants.

"The position of the artizan and industrial classes in the Pacific States and territories," writes Mr. Booker. "is one of great prosperity. They are independent, well housed, well fed, and generally self-reliant. The rent of houses and lodgings is higher than elsewhere, consequent upon the great value of labour and capital. The rent of houses (usually neat frame wooden cottages), occupied by the mechanics, ranges from 30*l.* to 48*l.* a year; single men, working in cities, generally live in boarding houses at a cost, for board and lodging, of 1*l.* 4*s.* to 1*l.* 12*s.* a week. A large number of the artizans in the city of San Francisco own the houses they inhabit, and

many others who purchased a plot of ground with the intention of somebody building a cottage on it have become comparatively wealthy from the immense advance in the value of land in the precincts of the city; the formation of Homestead Associations has assisted the labouring classes in this as they purchase large tracts of land and sell them out in building plots, receiving payment in monthly instalments, extending over two, three, and four years.

"It can scarcely be doubted, however, that the completion of the Pacific railway will tend to equalize the value of labour throughout the Union, and that the very brilliant days of the industrial classes on the Pacific coast will soon be past; that the working classes have had the opportunity of amassing vast sums of money is abundantly proved by the large amounts they have invested in the various land associations, and the amount of money on deposit in the Savings' Banks; those of the city of San Francisco having had at the beginding of the present year 4,474,500*l.* on account of 29,893 depositors.

"Nevertheless, there is still an opening for a large immigration, but the advantages offered are not as attractive as they were formerly, owing to the probability of an assimilation of the value of white labour, and the competition that may be expected to arise from an extended immigration of Chinese."

Wages.

The following seventeen Tables of the average weekly wages or earnings of workmen employed in the manufacturing establishments of the United States in 1867-68 were prepared for the use of the Special Commissioner of the Revenue by Mr. Edward Young.

The corresponding rate of wages paid to workmen engaged in similar establishments in Great Britain are compiled from the Miscellaneous Statistics of the United Kingdom. (Part VI, page 274, presented to both Houses of Parliament in 1866.)

Mr. Edward Young, having carefully studied the subject, estimates the average per-centage excess of

wages or earnings in certain important manufacturs and trades in the United States of America over English rates as follows:—

	Per cent.
Paper mills	93
Silk-hat manufactories	80
Sugar refineries	65
Gas works	62
Steel works	62
Wooden ship-building yards	62
Worsted mills	58
Iron foundries and machine shops	57
Fire-arm manufactories	56
Saw manufactories	52
Edge tool manufactories	50
Iron rolling-mills	48
Leather manufactories	48
Iron ship-building yards	47
Glass works	45
Hardware works	40
Cotton mills	28
Woollen mills	24

Cotton Mills.

Table showing the Comparative Rate of Wages paid to Persons employed in the Cotton Mills of the United States and Great Britain in 1867.

Average Weekly Wages or Earnings.

Occupation.	In United States.			In Great Britain.					
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Carding Department—									
Overseer	2	10	3	1	7	0		..	
Picker tenders	1	3	2		..			..	
Railway tenders	0	13	7		..			..	
Drawing-frame tenders ..	0	13	8	0	10	0		..	
Speeder tenders	0	16	7		..			..	
Picker-boy	0	13	6		..			..	
Grinders	1	6	9	0	19	6		..	
Strippers	1	1	2	0	11	6		..	
Spinning Department—									
Overseer	2	8	3	1	7	0		..	
Mule spinners	1	9	0		..			..	
Mule back-side piecers ..	0	8	10		..			..	
Frame spinners	0	13	8		..			..	
Dressing Department—									
Spoolers	0	14	4		..			..	
Warpers	0	16	9	1	2	0		..	
Drawers and twisters ..	0	19	4	1	0	0		..	
Dressers	1	13	4		..			..	
Weaving Department—									
Overseer	2	9	7	2	5	0		..	
Weavers	1	4	2	0	12	0	to 1	0	0
Drawers in hand	1	0	6	0	8	6		..	
Repair, Engine-room, &c.—									
Iron workers	1	19	10		..			..	
Wood workers	1	19	8		..			..	
Engineers	1	13	2		..			..	
Labourers	1	6	1		..			..	
Cloth-room, &c.—									
Overseer	1	17	9	2	5	0		..	
Second hand	1	6	5		..			..	

Woollen Mills.

Average Weekly Wages or Earnings.

Occupation.	In United States.	In Great Britain.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d. to £ s. d.
Preparing—		
Wool-sorters	1 13 11	1 2 0 to 1 12 0
Wool-washers	1 5 8	0 16 6 to 1 1 0
Dyers	1 6 2	0 15 0 to 1 2 0
Overseers	2 18 9	1 10 0 to 2 0 0
Assistants	1 12 1	.. ..
Carding and spinning—		
Pickers	1 3 4	.. ..
Carders	0 17 0	.. ..
Spinners	1 12 4	0 18 0 to 1 10 0
Warpers and beamers ..	1 8 3	0 15 0 to 1 6 0
Reelers	0 12 8	0 6 0 ..
Overseers	2 17 11	1 10 0 ..
Assistants	1 14 3	.. ..
Weaving—		
Weavers	1 3 0	0 18 0 to 1 3 0
Burlers	0 12 9	0 7 0 to 0 9 0
Overseers	2 18 9	1 8 0 to 1 10 0
Dressing and finishing—		
Fullers	1 8 2	.. ..
Dressers or giggers . ..	1 3 5	0 18 0 to 1 2 0
Finishers	1 6 0	.. ..
Press tenders	1 4 11	.. ..
Drawers	1 3 3	.. ..
Brushers	0 15 3	1 1 0 to 1 3 6
Packers	1 2 1	.. ..
Overseers	2 13 2	.. ..
Assistants	1 14 3	.. ..
Engine-room, yard, &c.—		
Engineers	2 7 8	0 18 0 to 1 12 0
Mechanics	2 7 5	0 18 0 to 1 6 0
Labourers, watchmen, yard-hands, &c.	1 8 0	1 0 0 ..
Foremen	2 11 5	.. ..

Worsted Mills.

Average Weekly Wages or Earnings.

Occupation.	In United States.	In Great Britain.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Worsted yarn or fabric—		
Wool sorters	1 14 4	1 8 0 ..
Wool washers	1 8 2	0 16 6 ..
Combers	1 5 8	0 14 0 ..
Gill box and drawing-hands	1 0 4	.. ..
Spinners	0 16 6	0 7 0 to 0 10 0
Twisters	0 15 4	.. ..
Reelers	0 18 0	0 13 0 ..
Overseers	3 8 6	1 15 0 ..
Assistant overseers	1 17 7	1 2 0 ..
Dyers	1 9 0	0 18 0 ..
Weavers	1 12 2 1 11 1	0 18 0 .. ..
Finishers	1 8 2	.. ..
Engine-room, yard, &c.—		
Engineers	2 10 8	2 0 0 ..
Mechanics	2 3 4	1 9 0 ..
Labourers, watchmen, and yard hands	1 10 6	.. ..

Sugar Refineries.

Average Weekly Wages or Earnings.

Occupation.	In United States.	In Great Britain.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Boilers	3 1 5	1 13 0
Panmen	1 14 3	1 3 0
Filtermen	1 11 5	0 17 6
Warehousemen	1 6 11	0 18 6
Upstairmen	1 8 5	0 17 6
Engineers	3 1 5	1 2 0
Stokers	1 11 5	1 3 0

Iron-Rolling Mills.

Average Weekly Wages or Earnings.

Occupation.	In United States.			In Great Britain.					
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Puddlers	3	6	1	1	10	0	to	1	12	6
Puddlers' helpers	1	18	5	0	15	0			..	
Shinglers	3	3	6		..				..	
Shinglers' helpers	1	6	11		..				..	
Puddle mill rollers	2	14	3		..				..	
Top and bottom rollers	3	11	7		..				..	
Forge rollers	3	0	9	2	14	0		4	10	0
Merchant mill finishers	3	14	0		..				..	
Rail mill rollers	5	7	8		..				..	
Sheet and plate rollers	2	18	11		..				..	
Second rollers	2	6	10		..				..	
Third rollers	1	19	7		..				..	
Furnacemen or heaters' helpers	1	14	1	3	0	0		3	12	0
Shearmen	2	2	10	3	0	0		3	12	0
Catchers	2	2	3		..					
Roughers	2	17	10		..				..	
Heaters	3	13	4		..				..	
Foremen and superintendents	3	11	5		..				..	
Machinists	2	14	1		..				..	
Engineers	2	0	9		..				..	
Carpenters	2	4	0		..				..	
Blacksmiths	2	1	10	1	6	0		1	14	0
Labourers and unskilled workmen	1	6	0	0	18	0		1	4	0
Teamsters	1	9	2	1	0	0		1	1	0
Apprentices and boys	0	12	10		..				..	

Steel Works.

Average Weekly Wages or Earnings.

Occupation.	In United States.			In Great Britain.					
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Converter	2	15	8	1	8	0	to	2	0	0
Converter's labourer	1	14	3	0	18	0		1	1	0
Common labourer	1	5	8		..				..	
Melter	4	12	5	1	16	0		2	5	0
Puller out	2	6	7	1	7	0		1	12	0
Moulders	1	14	3		..				..	
Cokers	1	14	3	1	0	0			..	
Forgemen and tilters	4	5	7	2	0	0		2	10	0
Forgeman's heater	1	14	3	0	18	0		1	10	0
Roller	5	8	6	2	0	0		3	0	0
Roller furnace man	2	11	5	1	0	0		1	16	0

Iron Foundries and Machine Shops.

Average Weekly Wages or Earnings.

Occupation.	In United States.			In Great Britain.					
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Moulders	2	6	3	1	12	0	to	1	16	0
Machinists, best	2	11	7		..				..	
„ second	2	6	3		..				..	
„ ordinary	1	19	10		..				..	
„ inferior	1	11	10		..				..	
„ helpers	1	7	3		..				..	
Blacksmiths..	2	9	3	1	6	0		1	14	0
„ helpers	1	9	4		..				..	
Riveters	2	6	3		..				..	
Holders on	1	9	9		..				..	
Boiler makers	2	10	5	1	10	0			..	
„ helpers.. ..	1	10	2		..				..	
Flangers	3	10	7		..				..	
„ helpers	1	11	5		..				..	
Engineers	2	5	9	1	0	0			..	
Pattern makers and carpenters ..	2	11	5	1	5	0			..	
„ „ assistants ..	1	16	5		..				..	
Labourers, carters, &c. ..	1	8	3	0	18	0			..	
Apprentices..	0	15	6	0	4	0		0	10	0
Brass founders	2	12	3	1	0	0			..	
„ fitters and turners ..	2	7	5	1	6	0			..	
Millwrights	2	11	5		..				..	
„ assistants	2	2	10		..				..	
Painters, 1st class	1	19	5		..				..	
„ 2nd „	1	18	6		..				..	

Hardware Manufactories.

Average Weekly Wages or Earnings.

Occupation.	In United States.	In Great Britain.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d. to £ s. d.
Moulders	1 17 7	1 12 0 to 1 16 0
Cupola tenders	1 10 3	.. ..
Annealing furnace tenders	1 11 5	0 15 0 ..
Filers	1 12 2	.. ..
Japanners	1 13 2	.. ..
Forgers	2 9 3	.. ..
Helpers	1 9 0	.. ..
Grinders	1 14 9	1 6 0 ..
Polishers	1 13 2	0 13 0 1 6 0
Turners	1 13 0	1 6 6 ..
Lockmakers	2 2 10	.. ..
Machinists	2 12 0	1 5 0 ..
Engineers	2 7 1	1 6 0 1 14 0
Labourers	1 8 1	0 18 0 1 4 0
Packers	1 14 3	.. ..
„ (females)	0 16 8	.. ..
Die makers	2 18 1	2 0 0 ..
Press workmen	1 13 7	.. ..
„ (females)	0 16 9	.. ..
Rollers	2 2 10	.. ..
Welders	2 2 10	.. ..
Jointers	2 0 8	.. ..
Stampers	2 2 10	.. ..
Graduators	1 18 6	.. ..
Finishers	1 19 9	.. ..
Pattern makers	2 11 0	1 12 0 1 16 0
Carpenters	2 7 1	.. ..
Trip hammermen	2 6 4	0 18 0 ..
Crimpers	2 7 1	.. ..
Twisters	2 11 5	.. ..
Fitters up	1 9 9	1 6 0 1 14 0
Screw cutters	1 9 0	.. ..
Blacksmiths	2 1 6	1 6 0 1 14 0
Helpers	1 6 0	0 18 0 1 1 0
Foremen	2 16 9	.. ..
Apprentices or boys	0 16 1	.. ..

Edge-Tool Manufactories.

Average Weekly Wages or Earnings.

Occupation.	In United States.			In Great Britain.					
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Forgers	2	10	0	1	11	0	to	1	16	0
Helpers	1	18	6		..				..	
Temperers	2	2	10		..				..	
Grinders	2	11	5	2	5	0		2	10	0
Polishers	2	1	6		..				..	
Labourers	1	9	2		..				..	
Carpenters	2	7	1		..				..	
Foremen	2	9	3		..				..	
Apprentices or boys	1	3	0		..				..	
Machinists	2	11	5		..				..	
Trip hammermen	3	0	0		..				..	

Fire-Arms Manufactories.

Average Weekly Wages or Earnings.

Occupation.	In United States.			In Great Britain.					
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Gun barrel browners	2	9	2	1	0	0	to	3	0	0
,, filers	2	8	0	0	15	0		2	0	0
,, grinders	2	14	7	1	0	0		1	10	0
,, riflers	2	8	3	1	5	0		2	10	0
,, welders	3	3	0	1	0	0		2	0	0
,, drillers	2	2	10		..				..	
,, breach forgers ..	2	11	5	0	15	0		1	10	0
,, case makers ..	2	4	3	1	0	0		2	0	0
,, finishers	2	8	6	0	15	0		2	0	0
,, nipple makers ..	2	8	3	0	12	0		1	5	0
,, polishers	2	11	5	1	0	0		1	15	0
,, stockers	2	8	0	1	0	0		2	0	0
,, tool makers ..	2	18	1	1	0	0		1	15	0
,, work forgers ..	2	17	11	0	15	0		1	15	0
,, lock filers	2	8	3	0	10	0		1	10	0
,, lock forgers ..	2	17	1	0	15	0		1	10	0
Machinists	2	10	2		..				..	
Engineers	2	17	1		..				..	
Labourers or unskilled men ..	1	6	7		..				..	
Apprentices or boys	0	17	1		..				..	
Foremen or overseers	4	5	7		..				..	

Saw Manufactories.

Average Weekly Wages or Earnings.

Occupation.	In United States.	In Great Britain.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d. to £ s. d.
Saw makers	3 11 4	1 10 0 to 3 0 0
Grinders	2 18 2	2 10 0 to 3 10 0
Polishers	2 7 1	.. ..
Turners	3 8 7	.. ..
Filers	1 8 6	.. ..
Labourers	1 6 9	.. ..
Helpers	1 13 0	.. ..
Boys	0 18 6	.. ..

Gas Works.

Average Weekly Wages or Earnings.

Occupation.	In United States.	In Great Britain.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Firemen	2 9 3	..
Secondmen	2 3 1	..
Yardsmen	1 11 5	..
Purifiers	1 14 1	..
Engineers	2 11 6	1 10 0
Carpenters	2 13 2	..
Masons	3 3 7	..
Blacksmiths	2 7 9	1 10 0
Pipe layers	1 17 7	1 10 0
Gasfitters	1 17 8	1 7 0
Lamplighters	1 7 9	0 13 6
Labourers	1 8 7	0 18 0
Foremen	2 15 8	1 12 6

Leather Manufactories.

Average Weekly Wages or Earnings.

Occupation.	In United States.	In Great Britain.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Tanners	2 2 10	1 5 0
Curriers	2 2 10	1 14 0
Dressers	2 2 10	..
Beam men	2 11 5	1 5 0
Shed men	1 8 6	..
Tanners' labourers	1 5 8	0 15 0

Glass Works.

Average Weekly Wages or Earnings.

Occupation.	In United States.	In Great Britain.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Glass blowers	3 4 11	3 10 0
Vial blowers	2 11 5	..
Assistants	1 8 6	..
Batch mixers*	2 0 8	..
Master teasers	2 11 5	..
Assistant teasers	1 17 6	..
Pot makers	2 14 3	..
Assistant pot makers	1 14 3	..
Packers	2 1 6	..
Blacksmiths	2 10 0	..
Carpenters	2 0 8	..
Demijohn coverers	2 0 0	..
Skilled boys	0 16 9	..
Engineers	2 2 10	..
Labourers and unskilled workmen	1 6 7	..
Apprentices or boys	0 12 9	..
Foremen and overseers ..	2 15 8	..

* Average wages in this branch of trade in England, 30*s.* a week for men; 8*s.* a week for women; 6*s.* a week for boys.

Silk Hat Manufactories.

Average Weekly Wages or Earnings.

Occupation.	In United States.	In Great Britain.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Body-makers	3 17 1	1 5 0
Silk finishers	2 18 7	1 5 0
	..	1 10 0
Curlers	4 8 5	..
Crown sewers (females) ..	0 18 9	0 7 0
Trimmers (ditto)	1 13 2	0 7 0

Paper Mills.

Average Weekly Wages or Earnings.

Occupation.	In United States.			In Great Britain.					
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Machine tenders	2	4	9	1	0	0	to	1	2	0
Assistant tenders	1	5	8		..				..	
Rag-cutters, males	1	14	9	0	13	0		0	16	0
„ females	0	16	9		..				..	
Loftmen or dryers	1	10	11	0	15	0		0	16	6
Callender-men	2	0	8		..				..	
Finishers	1	16	2	0	12	0		0	18	0
Enginemen	1	14	3	0	17	0		1	0	0
Helpers on engines	1	4	2		..				..	
Bleachers	1	11	5	0	16	0		1	0	0
Sizers	1	9	2	0	17	0		0	18	6
Millwrights	2	14	3	1	2	0		1	8	0
Masons	2	17	1		..				..	
Carpenters	2	7	1		..				..	
Blacksmiths	2	0	0	1	3	0			..	
Labourers, carters, watchmen, &c.	1	5	6	0	15	0			..	
Apprentices or boys	0	16	9		..				..	
Firemen	2	0	0	0	15	0		0	18	0

Ship Building.

Average Weekly Wages or Earnings.

Occupation.	In United States.			In Great Britain.					
Wooden Ships.	£	*s.*	*d.*	£	*s.*	*d.*		£	*s.*	*d.*
Shipwrights	2	11	5	1	4	0	to	1	6	0
Shipsmiths	2	12	5	1	4	0		1	10	0
Sawyers	2	7	1	1	4	0		..		
Joiners	2	7	1	1	3	0		..		
Strikers	1	9	9	0	16	0		..		
Caulkers	3	8	6	..				..		
Labourers	1	9	9	0	13	0		0	15	0
Foremen	3	0	0	1	10	0		2	5	0
Iron Ships.										
Moulders	2	4	3	1	16	0		..		
Machinists	2	5	10	..				..		
Riveters and platers	1	14	3	1	16	0		..		
Boiler-makers	2	2	10	1	10	0		..		
Helpers and strikers	1	9	9	0	15	0		0	18	0
Blacksmiths..	2	4	3	1	1	0		1	13	0
Chippers	1	14	3	1	4	0		..		
Carpenters	2	11	5	1	13	0		..		
Painters	2	2	10	1	4	0		..		
Labourers or unskilled workmen	1	8	6	0	18	0		..		

Manufactories of Agricultural Implements.

Average Weekly Wages or Earnings.

Occupation.	In United States.		
	£	*s.*	*d.*
Moulders	2	9	4
Machinists	2	4	9
Blacksmiths..	2	4	5
Blacksmiths' helpers	1	5	5
Woodworkers	2	1	9
Painters	1	14	11
Plough-makers	2	2	10
Teamsters	1	10	0
Grinders	1	14	5
Pattern-makers	2	9	3
Watchmen	1	16	3
Clerks	4	11	3
Engineers	2	2	10
Labourers and unskilled workmen	1	8	4
Apprentices or boys	0	11	6
Foremen or overseers	3	7	3

Flint Glass Works.

Average Weekly Wages or Earnings.

Occupation.	In United States.		
	£	*s.*	*d.*
Workmen	3	19	7
First servitor	2	15	5
Second servitor	2	1	5
Footmakers	1	16	5
Finishers	2	17	4
Leechers	2	0	0
Mixers	2	0	0
Liersmen	2	0	0
Tiseurs	2	8	7
Pressmen	3	6	9
Gatherers	1	10	4
First class gaffer	6	8	7
Second class gaffer	5	14	3
Potmakers	2	11	5
Potmaker's assistant	1	18	7
Mould-makers	3	14	3
Blowers	2	15	8
Glass-cutters	2	8	0
Engravers	3	11	5
Packers	2	1	5
Engineers	2	8	0
Labourers	1	10	3
Foremen	3	0	0
Boys	0	14	0
Superintendents	4	5	8
Apprentices	1	7	1
Watchmen	1	18	7
Carpenters	2	8	7
Blacksmiths	2	8	7

Felt Hat Manufactories.

Average Weekly Wages or Earnings.

Occupation.	In United States.		
	£	*s.*	*d.*
Body-makers	1	14	0
Finishers	3	0	0
Blockers	3	0	0
Stiffeners	2	15	0
Trimmers	1	0	10
Engineers	2	17	0
Labourers or unskilled workmen	1	10	0
Apprentices or boys	0	8	0
Foremen or overseers	3	17	0

The following is a list of the weekly wages that can be obtained in the State of New York in various miscellaneous trades and occupations :—

BUILDING TRADE.

	Weekly Wages.					
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Bricklayers	3	17	1 to	4	5	8
Brick makers	3	0	0	3	8	6
Carpenters	3	17	1	4	5	8
Gas and steam fitters	3	0	0	..		
Hod carriers	2	5	8	2	11	5
House smiths	3	8	6	4	5	8
Marble cutters	3	8	6	4	5	8
Marble polishers..	2	2	10	2	11	5
Marble rubbers	3	0	0	3	8	6
Masons	3	17	1	4	5	8
Painters	3	0	0	3	8	4
Plasterers	4	5	8	5	2	10
Plumbers	2	11	5	3	8	6
Quarrymen	2	2	10	2	11	6
Roofers, slate	3	17	1	4	5	8
Roofers, tin	2	11	5	3	8	6
Sawyers	2	2	10	2	17	1
Stair builders	3	2	10	3	17	0
Stone cutters (blue)	2	17	1	3	8	6
Stone cutters (brown)	3	17	1	4	5	8
Stone rubbers	2	5	8	2	11	5

HOUSE FURNISHING TRADE.

	Weekly Wages.					
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Cabinet makers	2	11	5 to	2	17	1
Carvers and gilders	3	1	5	4	5	8
Cutlers..	2	11	5	3	1	5
Jewellers	3	11	5	..		
Paper hangers	2	2	1	2	11	5
Paper stainers	2	11	5	..		
Piano case makers	2	17	1	3	1	5
Piano finishers	2	17	1	4	5	8
Piano key makers	2	2	10	2	17	1
Piano machinists	2	17	1	..		
Piano regulators	2	17	1	4	5	8
Piano sawyers and planers.. ..	2	11	5	3	1	5
Picture frame makers	2	11	5	3	2	10
Silversmiths	2	2	10	2	11	5
Table and chair makers	2	17	1	3	1	5
Trunk makers	2	0	0	2	11	5
Upholsterers	2	17	1	3	1	5
Varnishers and polishers	2	17	1	3	1	5
Watch case engravers	3	11	5	4	5	8
Watchmakers	4	5	8	..		

Clothing Trades.

	Weekly Wages.					
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Clerks (dry goods)	2	2	10	2	11	5
Curriers	2	2	10	2	17	1
Cutters	2	17	1	3	8	6
Hatters	3	1	5	4	5	8
Shoe finishers	2	11	5	3	0	0
Shoe makers	2	11	0	..		
Tailors	2	11	5	..		

Printing and Publishing Trade.

	Weekly Wages.					
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Bookbinders	2	17	1	..		
Card makers	0	14	3	to 1	2	10
Compositors (male)	2	17	1	3	8	6
Compositors (female)	1	8	6	1	14	3
Bookfolders (female)	1	2	10	..		
Pencilcase makers	2	11	5	3	0	0
Pressmen	2	17	1	..		
Proof readers	2	11	5	2	17	1
Stereotypers	2	11	5	3	11	5
Type casters	2	17	1	3	11	5

Miscellaneous Trades.

	Weekly Wages.					
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Bakers	1	14	3	..		
Blacksmiths	2	17	1	..		
Boiler makers	2	11	5	..		
Brass founders	3	0	0	..		
Cartmen	2	2	10	to 2	11	5
Cigar makers	2	2	10	2	17	1
Coach drivers	2	2	10	2	17	1
Coopers	2	17	1	3	8	6
Derrickmen	2	11	5	..		
Engineers	2	11	5	..		
Horse shoers	3	0	0	..		
Iron moulders	2	2	10	..		
Labourers	2	2	10	..		
Longshore men	2	5	8	..		
Millers	2	11	5	..		
Ship painters	3	0	0	..		
Sail makers	3	0	0	..		
Waiters	1	0	0	..		

TABLE OF WOMEN'S WAGES.

	Weekly Wages.					
	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Female tailors	1	5	8	to	1	14	3
Coat and vest makers	1	0	0		2	0	0
Pantaloon finishers	0	12	10		1	0	0
Baisters	0	14	3		1	2	10
Cap finishers	0	11	5		1	2	10
Cloak and mantilla makers.. ..	0	17	1		1	5	8
Hat trimmers	1	0	0		1	14	3
Necktie trimmers	1	2	10		2	2	10
Paper collar makers	0	14	3		1	0	0
Dress makers	1	5	8		2	5	8
Sewing machine operators.. ..	1	2	10		2	0	0
Hoop skirt makers	0	17	1		1	14	3
Bonnet frame makers	0	14	3		1	14	3
Feather and flower makers ..	0	14	3		2	17	1
Fan makers	0	14	3		1	5	8
Shirt makers	0	14	3		1	5	8
Shoe fitters and trimmers	0	17	1		1	8	6
Lace collar makers	0	17	1		2	11	5
Ironers..	0	17	1		2	11	5
Hair dressers	1	14	3		4	5	8
Fur sewers	1	5	8		1	14	3
Pocket book makers	1	8	6		2	0	0

The following statement of wages apply to the Southern States :—

At Savannah in Georgia :—
Journeymen tailors from 6*s.* to 12*s.* a day. Hours, 7 A.M. to 6 P.M.
At piece-work as follows :—
Trousers, 8*s.* 3*d.* to 9*s.* 9*d.*
Waistcoats, 6*s.* to 7*s.* 6*d.*
Morning coats, 19*s.* 6*d.* to 1*l.* 5*s.* 6*d.*
Dress coats, 1*l.* 1*s.* to 1*l.* 16*s.*
At work per week, from 1*l.* 14. to 3*l.* 6*s.*
Cabinet makers, 12*s.* to 15*s.* a day (10 hours).
Carpenters, 11*s.* 3*d.*
Job printers, 12*s.* a day (8 to 9 hours).
Bookbinders, 6*s.* to 15*s.* a day, according to skill.
Tin smiths, 9*s.* to 15*s.* a day (10 hours).
Engineers to drive press engine, 15*l.* to 18*l.* 15*s.* a month—over time, 1*s.* 6*d.* per hour.
Firemen to Engineers, 11*l.* 5*s.* a month.
Men-servants, 2*l.* 5*s.* to 3*l.* a month and board.
Cooks, 2*l.* 2*s.*
Housemaids, 1*l.* 10*s.* to 1*l.* 16*s.*
Coachmen, 3*l.* to 3*l.* 15*s.*

Railroad employés :—
Machinists, 9*s.* to 12*s.* a day.
Engineers (stationary engines), 6*s.* 9*d.* a day.
Engine drivers, 12*s.* 9*d.* a day.
Stokers, 4*s.* 6*d.* a day.
Supervisors of road division, 15*l.* a month.
Overseers of sections, 5*l.* 5*s.* to 7*l.* 10*s.*
Track hands, 1*l.* 4*s.* a month.
Bridge hands, 1*l.* 16*s.* to 3*l.* a month.
Hands in freight depôt, 5*s.* 3*d.* a day.
Ordinary labourers, 5*s.* 3*d.*

In the State of Louisiana :—
Agricultural labourers command from 2*l.* 5*s.* to 3*l.* a month.
Ditchers and common labourers, 4*s.* 6*d.* to 6*s.* a day.

At New Orleans :—
Bricklayers, 9*s.* a day.
Painters, 9*s.* to 12*s.*
Carpenters, 9*s.* to 12*s.*
Slaters, 9*s.*
Machine and foundry men, 12*s.*
Stevedores, or men engaged in stowing cargoes of vessels, 9*s.* to 12*s.*
Ship carpenters, 9*s.* to 12*s.*

Mechanics are in great demand in that city, particularly in the summer and autumn months, when building is going on.

The following are the wages to be obtained in the State of Alabama, at the city of Mobile :—

Bakers, 7*l.* 10*s.* a-month with board ; 6*l.* without board.
Blacksmiths, 9*s.* to 10*s.* 6*d.* a-day.
Bookbinders, 3*l.* 15*s.* to 4*l.* 10*s.* a-week to a first class man.
Bootmakers are paid according to the work they perform. A good workman will receive 24*s.* for making Wellington boots, and 10*s.* 6*d.* for shoes.
Bricklayers, 9*s.* to 10*s.* 6*d.* a-day.
Butchers, 3*l.* 15*s.* to 4*l.* 10*s.* a-month, and board.
Cabinet-makers, 12*s.* a-day.
Carpenters (house), 12*s.* to 15*s.* a-day.
Carpenters (ship), 12*s.* to 15*s.* a-day.
Carriage makers, 12*s.* to 15*s.* a-day.
Carriage drivers are paid by the months, and receive from 45*s.* to 60*s.* and board ; and 5*l.* 15*s.* to 6*l.* without board.
Coal-miners, 6*s.* to 7*s.* 6*d.* a-day.
Coopers, 9*s.* a-day.
Draymen, 2*l.* 5*s.* to 6*l.* a-month. This class of workmen generally own their own horse and dray, and do not work by the day.
Door sash and blind makers, 10*s.* 6*d.* a-day.
Engine drivers, 13*s.* 6*d.* a-day.
Field hands on plantations receive 2*l.* 5*s.* to 6*l.* 5*s.* a-month. On some plantations they bargain for a portion of the crop produced, and their living is deducted on settlement.

Foundry workmen, moulders, and finishers, 13*s.* 6*d.* to 15*s.* a-day.
Gas-pipe layers, 4*s.* 6*d.* a-day.
Stoker and furnace (gas) men, 7*s.* 6*d.* a-day.
Gasfitter and foreman, 18*l.* 15*s.* per month; assistant-foreman, 12*l.*; Engineer, 300*l.* a-year.
Iron mine workmen, 4*s.* 6*d.* to 7*s.* 6*d.* a-day, according to capacity of workman.
Locksmiths, 9*s.* to 12*s.* a-day.
Labourers (in towns), 2*l.* 5*s.* to 6*l.* a-month.
Gardeners generally work by contract, and command excellent wages. They are in great demand.
Overseers of cotton plantations receive 150*l.* a-year.
House painters, 10*s.* 6*d.* a-day for good plain workmen.
Plasterers, 9*s.* a-day.
Printers, 3*l.* 15*s.* to 4*l.* 10*s.* a-week.
Railway workmen, 3*s.* 9*d.* to 4*s.* 6*d.* a-day with board.
Sail makers are paid by the yard, and a good workman makes 18*s.* to 21*s.* a-day, but there is no demand for this class of men at present.
Sheet-iron workers, 12*s.* to 13*s.* a-day.
Stokers, 12*s.* a-day.
Stevedores, men employed to load ships with cotton, 15*s.* a-day and board.
Tailors are paid by the piece, as follows :—
Coats according to quality and make, 18*s.* to 36*s.*; pantaloons, 7*s.* 6*d.* to 10*s.* 6*d.*; vest, 6*s.* to 9*s.* Sewing-machines are much used in the trade.
Tinsmiths, 10*s.* 6*d.* a-day.
Turpentine makers in the pine-woods of Alabama, 3*l.* a-month and board.
Ditto, foremen, 15*l.* a-month.
Ditto, boxers and hackers, 6*l.* a-month.
Ditto, cooper, 9*l.* a-month.
Ditto, distiller, 67*l.* for the season (six months).
Ditto, teamster, 6*l.* a-month.
Watchmakers: first-class workmen can command from 225*l.* to 300*l.* a-year.

The following is a list of wages that can be obtained in the State of California by non-unionists. It is issued by the Labour Exchange at San Francisco.

The Trades' Unions mainly controlled the labour market in California until the formation of the Exchange, and although every obstacle has been thrown in its way by the different mechanics' leagues, it has proved a marked success.

The demand for particular class of workmen far exceed the supply, thus of—

1,301	Carpenters ordered	1,182	were supplied
408	Miners „	246	„
380	Cooks „	334	„
4550	Common labourers ordered ..	3,551	„

From the 27th of April to the 31st of December, 1868, nearly 15,000 found employment through the agency of the Labour Exchange; of that number upwards of 6,000 were Irish, 3,000 were Americans, 1,700 were Germans, and 1,400 were English.

TABLE of Wages in California.

Amalgamator. ..	20*l.* a-month.
Auctioneers . ..	20*l.* a-month.
Apprentices . ..	3*l.* to 7*l.* a-month and found.
Apothecaries . ..	8*l.* to 10*l.* a-month and found.
Bakers	6*l.* to 10*l.* a-month and found.
Bar tenders	6*l.* to 9*l.* a-month and found.
Barbers	16*l.* a-month.
Bedmakers	5*l.* to 7*l.* a-month and found.
Bellhangers	10*s.* to 12*s.* a-day.
Bee tenders .. .	On shares.
Beltmakers	8*s.* to 10*s.* a-day.
Blacksmiths	10*s.* to 16*s.* a-day; 12*l.* to 20*l.* a-month and found.
Blacksmith's helper ..	8*s.* to 10*s.* a-day.
Boiler makers ..	7*l.* to 12*l.* a-month and found.
Boot blacks	9*l.* a-month.
Bookbinders	According to ability.
Bookkeepers . ..	7*l.* to 20*l.* a-month.
Boot and shoemakers ..	7*l.* to 12*l.* a-month; half share; piece.
Bottlers	7*l.* to 8*l.* a-month and found.
Boys	2*l.* to 8*l.* a-month and found.
Bricklayers	18*s.* to 1*l.* 4*s.* a-day.
Brewers	10*l.* a-month.
Bridge builders ..	15*l.* a-month and found.
Brush and broom makers	15*l.* a-month and found.
Burnishers	8*s.* to 12*s.* a-day.
Butchers	7*l.* to 12*l.* a-month and board.
Butter makers ..	6*l.* to 9*l.* a-month and board.
Brickmakers	7*l.* to 12*l.* a-month and board.
Brickyard hands ..	6*l.* to 8*l.* a-month and board.
Boxmakers	9*l.* 16*l.* a-month and found.
Coachmen	7*l.* to 10*l.* a-month and board.
Coal miners	4*s.* to 5*s.* per yard.
Coal passers	7*l.* a-month and found.
Coalyard men. ..	6*l.* to 7*l.* a-month and found.
Coffin makers. ..	10*s.* to 18*s.* a-day.
Collectors	On commission.
Confectioners ..	8*l.* to 12*l.* a-month and found.
Cooks	7*l.* to 20*l.* a-month and found.
Coopers	8*s.* to 13*s.* a-day, and piece work.
Curriers and tanners ..	12*s.* to 13*s.* a-day; 10*l.* to 12*l.* a-month.
Cutlers	According to ability.
Cardstrippers. ..	12*s.* to 16*s.* a-day.
Cabinet makers ..	12*s.* to 16*s.* a-day, and piece work.

Canvassers	On commission.
Carpet weavers ..	According to ability.
Carpenters (house) ..	12*s.* to 16*s.* a-day.
Carriage painters ..	12*s.* to 16*s.* a-day.
Carriage builders ..	14*s.* to 16*s.* a-day.
Carriage trimmers ..	12*s.* to 18*s.* a-day.
Caulkers	12*s.* to 16*s.* a-day.
Carvers	Piecework.
Charcoal burners ..	7*l.* a-month and found.
Cheese makers ..	6*l.* to 9*l.* a-month and found.
Deck hands	8*l.* a-month and found.
Dish washers. ..	4*l.* to 7*l.* a-month and found.
Distillers	According to ability.
Door and sash makers ..	10*s.* to 18*s.* a-day.
Druggists	12*l.* a-month and found.
Dyers	8*l.* to 10*l.* a-month and found.
Dairyman	6*l.* to 9*l.* a-month and found.
Engineers	16*s.* to 1*l.* a-day.
Engravers	Piecework.
Edgers	8*l.* to 10*l.* a-month and found.
Farm labourers ..	4*s.* a-day; 6*l.* a-month and found; winter—8*s.* a-day; 8*l.* a-month and found, summer.
Filers, saw mills ..	8*l.* a-month and found.
File cutters	Piecework.
Firemen	8*l.* to 12*l.* a-month and found.
Fishermen	Two-fifth's share of take.
Flour packers. ..	12*l.* to 16*l.* a-month.
Foundrymen ..	8*s.* to 10*s.* a-day.
Fringe makers ..	12*l.* a-month.
Fruit pedlers . ..	6*l.* to 7*l.* a-month and found; shares.
Fruit packers . .	5*l.* to 7*l.* a-month.
Furniture polishers ..	8*s.* a-day.
Foremen	9*l.* to 12*l.* a-month and found.
Frame makers ..	Per piece.
Fence builders ..	7*l.* to 8*l.* a-month and found.
Gardiners	6*l.* to 8*l.* a-month and found.
Gasfitters	14*s.* to 18*s.* a-day.
Generally useful ..	6*l* to 8*l.* a-month and found.
Gilders	10*l.* to 12*l.* a-month and found.
Glue makers . ..	9*l.* to 10*l.* a-month and found.
Grave diggers ..	10*l.* a-month and found.
Grocer's help . ..	4*l.* to 8*l.* a-month and found.
Grooms	6*l.* to 8*l.* a-month and found.
Gunsmiths	12*s.* to 1*l.* a-day.
Grainer	10*s.* to 12*s.* a-day.
Hair and rope makers ..	10*s.* to 12*s.* a-day.
Harness makers ..	8*l.* to 13*l.* a-month and found.
Hod carriers. . ..	10*s.* a-day.
Hop growers . ..	On shares.
Hose makers . ..	10*s.* to 12*s.* a-day.
Housekeepers. ..	6*l.* to 8*l.* a-month and found.
Horse shoers . ..	10*s.* to 14*s.* a-day.
Harness cleaners ..	9*l.* to 12*l.* a-month.
Hair spinners. ..	8*s.* to 10*s.* a-day.

Hewers	Per piece ties ; 8*l.* to 10*l.* a-month and found.
Interpreters	6*l.* to 8*l.* a-month and found.
Iron moulders ..	14*s.* to 16*s.* a-day.
Iron rail makers ..	12*s.* to 14*s.* a-day.
Jewellery polishers ..	10*s.* to 12*s.* a-day.
Ruitters	Per piece.
Labourers	8*s.* a-day ; 6*l.* to 7*l.* a-month and found
Last makers.. ..	10*s.* to 12*s.* a-day.
Lathers	12*s.* to 16*s.* a-day.
Laundrymen . ..	6*l.* to 9*l.* a-month and found.
Local reporters ..	10*l.* a-month.
Lumbermen.. ..	7*l.* to 14*l.* a-month and found.
Lithographers ..	Per piece.
Machinists	14*s.* to 18*s.* a-day.
Machine planers ..	10*s.* to 12*s.* a-day.
Men and wives ..	10*l.* to 13*l.* a-month and found.
Map mounters ..	Piecework.
Marble cutters ..	16*s.* a-day.
Marble polishers ..	8*s.* to 10*s.* a-day.
Masons	16*s.* to 1*l.* a-day.
Mattress makers ..	8*s.* to 12*s.* a-day.
Milk and dairymen ..	6*l.* to 9*l.* a-month and found.
Millers	12*s.* to 16*s.* a-day.
Millwrights	12*s.* to 1*l.* a-day.
Miners	8*s.* to 14*s.* a-day, found ; 8*l.* to 13*l.* a-month and found.
Malt makers . ..	10*l.* a-month.
Nurses	5*l.* to 7*l.* a-month and found
Ox teamsters. ..	7*l.* to 15*l.* a-month and found.
Ostlers and teamsters ..	8*l.* to 9*l.* a-month and found.
Painters (house) ..	10*s.* to 16*s.* a-day.
Pantrymen	7*l.* a-month and found.
Paperhangers. ..	10*s.* to 14*s.* a-day.
Paper rulers . ..	According to ability.
Pattern makers ..	16*s.* to 18*s.* a-day.
Pedlers	On commission.
Picture frame makers ..	10*s.* to 14*s.* a-day and piece.
Pile drivers	10*s.* to 12*s.* a-day.
Plasterers	16*s.* to 1*l.* 4*s.* a-day.
Plumbers	14*s.* a-day.
Porters	5*l.* to 10*l.* 5*s.* a-month and found.
Potato diggers ..	5*l.* to 7*l.* a-month and found.
Printers	9*l.* to 16*l.* a-month and found.
Packers	According to ability.
Planers	12*l.* a-month and found.
Quarrymen	10*s.* a-day.
Stair builders . ..	10*s.* to 17*s.* a-day.
Steel plate printers ..	Piecework.
Stewards	6*l.* to 10*l.* a-month and found.
Storemen	6*l.* to 7*l.* a-month and found.
Sugar packers ..	16*l.* a-month.
Stone cutters . ..	16*s.* to 1*l.* a-day.
Scourers	6*l.* to 12*l.* a-month and found.
Salesmen	6*l.* to 12*l.* a-month and found.

Sawyers	8*l.* to 20*l.* a-month and found.
Shepherds	5*l.* to 7*l.* a-month and found.
Shipsmiths	16*s.* a-day.
Sign carriers	4*s.* to 6*s.* a-day.
Smelters	12*l.* to 24*l.* a-month and found.
Soap makers	7*l.* to 8*l.* a-month and found.
Tin roofers	16*s.* a-day.
Tinsmiths	12*s.* to 16*s.* a-day.
Tracklayers	5*s.* to 8*s.* a-day.
Trunk makers	10*s.* to 12*s.* a-day.
Turners	14*s.* to 16*s.* a-day.
Upholsterers	12*s.* to 16*s.* a-day.
Undertakers	16*l.* a-month.
Vineyard men	6*l.* to 8*l.* a-month and found.
Varnishers	10*s.* to 14*s.* a-day.
Waggon makers	12*s.* to 16*s.* a-day.
Waiters	4*l.* to 8*l.* a-month and found.
Warehousemen	8*s.* to 12*s.* a-day.
Watchmen	10*l.* to 25*l.* a-month.
Well diggers	10*s.* a-day, contract.
Wheelwrights	9*s.* to 12*s.* per day.
Wood choppers	8*l.* to 14*l.* a-month and found.
Wool sorters	According to ability.
Whip makers	12*s.* a-day.
Whitewashers	12*s.* a-day.

The following scale of wages, established by some of the Trades' Unions, may be assumed to be the average of wages of "Union" mechanics:—

House carpenters	14*s.* to 16*s.* a-day.
Ship carpenters	20*s.* a-day.
Ship caulkers	16*s.* to 18*s.* a-day.
Ship joiners	18*s.* to 20*s.* a-day.
Painters	12*s.* to 16*s.* a-day.
Bricklayers	20*s.* a-day.
Stonemasons	20*s.* a-day.
Plasterers	16*s.* a-day.
Lathers	12*s.* to 14*s.* a-day.
Gasfitters	12*s.* to 14*s.* a-day.
Plumbers	12*s.* to 14*s.* a-day.
Cabinet makers	10*s.* to 12*s.* a-day.
Upholsterers	12*s.* to 14*s.* a-day.
Metal roofers	12*s.* to 14*s.* a-day.
Blacksmiths	16*s.* a-day.
Pattern makers	16*s.* a-day.
Machinists	14*s.* to 16*s.* a-day.

Labourers in cities receive 8*s.* a day without board, and 6*l.* a month with board.

On the railways in the mountains higher wages are paid; in the country 5*l.* with board may be considered

the average. The wages of domestic servants vary from 3*l.* a month to 10*l.* The average given to housemaids and family cooks is 5*l.* to 6*l.* a month.

Men working in the mines receive from 12*s.* to 13*s.* a day, and in the State of Nevada and other remote parts 14*s.* to 20*s.*

Price of Provisions.

The following list contains the retail price paid for certain commodities by an experienced factor at one of the large industrial establishments in Massachusetts, and represents accurately the cost in that part of the country of the principal articles entering into the daily consumption of an operative's family.

The price of goods purchased at retail exceeds that of goods purchased at cost by about 26 per cent.

		s.	*d.*
Meat	per lb.	0	$7\frac{3}{4}$
Flour	„	0	$1\frac{1}{4}$
A barrel of flour contains 196 lbs. and costs 19*s.* 7*d.*			
Potatoes	per bushel	2	6
Fish	per lb.	0	3
Lard	„	1	6
Butter	„	1	$5\frac{3}{4}$
Sugar	„	0	$6\frac{1}{4}$
Eggs	per dozen	1	$5\frac{3}{4}$
Bacon, ribs	per lb.	0	6
Beans	per quart	0	$6\frac{1}{4}$
Cheese	per lb.	0	10
Rice	„	0	$6\frac{1}{4}$
Meal	„	0	1
A bushel contains 48 lbs., and costs 4*s.*			
Tea	per lb.	4	0
Coffee	„	1	9
Vinegar	per gallon	1	8
Salt	per peck	1	0
A sack of salt contains $2\frac{1}{2}$ bushels of 64 lbs., and costs about 7*s.*			
Milk	per quart	0	$2\frac{1}{2}$
Soap	per lb.	0	$6\frac{1}{4}$
Kerosene (burning oil)	per gallon	1	3
Coal*	per 100 lbs.	1	2
A ton of coal, of 2,000 lbs., costs about 1*l.* 11*s.* 1*d.*			

* There are two qualities of fuel in the United States. The anthracite (hard coal) and the bituminous (soft coal). The former is in most general use for family purposes, and it is sold entirely by weight; the latter is sold by the bushel, 28 bushels being equivalent to 1 ton. The English chaldron is equivalent to 36 bushels.

Hours of Labour.

The usual hours of labour in the United States are ten a day. In the Government workshops, however, eight hours has been constituted (by Act of Congress approved 25th of June, 1868) a legal day's work without a corresponding reduction of pay.

This change in the hours of labour was dictated by political motives, and is not generally considered to have worked advantageously. It has been the means of creating considerable jealousy and ill-feeling among workmen, and of imposing a heavy per-centage on all work performed in Government workshops. Co-operative labour unions and clubs have repeatedly attempted to enforce the eight-hour rule upon employers, but without success. Some of these unions have, from time to time, imposed the rule upon their members, but as it has had the effect of reducing their wages in a proportionate degree those trades which have made the attempt have one after another abandoned it rather than suffer the consequent diminution of their regular pay. When the agitation in favour of an eight-hour day first began in Buffalo, some of the large manufacturers anticipated difficulty with their workmen by substituting payments by the hour, at the rate of one-tenth of the ordinary wage, for payment by the day.

Agricultural labourers in the United States usually work twelve hours, from sunrise to sunset.

In the great industrial State of Massachusetts mechanic shops are generally run ten hours a day, whilst in the factories (cotton and woollen), in which 75 per cent. of the operatives employed are females, eleven hours constitute a day's work.

The usual time table is as follows :—

Breakfast at 6 A.M., commence work at 6·30 ; dinner at 12, resume work at 12·45 ; stop work at 6·30 P.M., and on Saturdays at 5 P.M.

The allowance of forty-five minutes only for dinner is considered as too little, particularly as the work people have frequently to walk some distance to their homes.

In England factory operatives work ten hours a day, are allowed one hour for their dinner, and half an hour for their tea, thus making their day's work nine and a-half hours only.

The reduction of the hours of labour to ten a day is demanded by persons interested in the welfare of the working classes, and a committee was not long ago formed to consider the matter with a view to legislative interference on it.

To the query "Do the social and sanitary interests of operatives, especially miners, require a reduction of time of labour to ten a day?" the following answer was returned by a high authority on industrial subjects: "Yes; the physical, moral, and religious interests of our people require a reduction. The present system of labour is debasing the native New England stock, and forcing them to emigrate to the West and South. The population which displaces ours is inferior in every respect."

It may be stated that 25 per cent. of the female operatives employed in Massachussetts, in the factories, are under 18 years of age.

An act has been passed by the legislature of the State of California, legalizing eight hours as a day's work, and no little discontent has arisen among the working classes there, owing to an unwillingness on the part of employers to pay the same rate of wages for eight hours' work as was formerly paid for ten. All the leagues take advantage of the law, but persons procuring employment through the labour exchange sometimes engage for eight hours, but the generality of them make no stipulation on the point.

Nature of Artizan's Engagements with Employers.

The nature of the engagements of operatives vary with the character of the labour employed.

Artizans in cities are usually engaged by the day, and in the country by the month. Written agreements or contracts are rare. In some parts of the State of New York wages are paid weekly, and in a few instances every fortnight. With dockyard labourers the completion of the job determines the time of payment.

Engagements are, as a rule, made by the day, and the workman may at any time either receive his discharge or change his master. In large establishments where a steady business is done, a week's notice is generally expected on either side, but cannot be enforced.

Manufacturers frequently employ, by preference, married men with large families, particularly if the children are sufficiently old to be employed with their parents.

Married men are obviously less likely to change masters than independent bachelors.

In the Southern States of the Union contracts are frequently made for an interest in the crops.

When made for money wages, the work is usually counted by the day and the payments made weekly.

Houses occupied by Labouring Classes.

The labouring classes in the United States are, as a rule, exceedingly well lodged, more particularly in the rural districts, where they usually inhabit small wooden houses, which are admirably adapted to the climate, containing from four to five good rooms, and a small plot of ground attached.

The small suburban cottages are generally inhabited by the skilled artizan, who, owing to the liberal remuneration received for his labour, is able to bear the expense of a daily railway or steamboat journey into the neighbouring town, where his employment is found.

The quantity of land occupied by this class is frequently not more than what is termed a single "lot," measuring 25 feet by 100 feet. This, if not actually owned by the occupant, has been taken by him from the original proprietor under an agreement that it shall be paid for by periodical payments. In this manner an artizan of the better class is able in a very few years to become the absolute proprietor of his small home. The taxes imposed upon this class of proprietors are exceedingly small, and their dwellings once acquired, they begin to lay by money.

The means of reaching the suburbs of the large towns are not so great as they might be, otherwise the labouring classes would certainly forsake the crowded streets for the freer environs. But even under the present circumstances, villages, and even towns have sprung up within an incredibly short space of time, surrounding the larger towns and cities, which are almost wholly inhabited by artizans.

Unskilled labourers, as a rule, are not sufficiently well paid to allow them to reside at any great distance from their work, and it is, therefore, this class which is confined to the towns themselves. Added to this a large portion of the better class of artizans remain from choice within the towns, and many are detained in them by the nature of their employment.

These are the classes inhabiting "tenement houses."

In the words of the law a tenement house shall be taken to mean and include "every house, building, or portion thereof which is rented, leased, let, or hired out to be occupied, or is occupied as the house or residence of more than three families living independently of one another and doing their cooking upon the premises, or by more than two families upon a floor, so living and cooking, but having a common right in the halls, stairways, yards, privies, or some of them."

Tenement houses are large structures of from three to six stories in height, and containing, on the average, from seven to twelve families. Each family occupies from one to four rooms. The general rule is found to give two rooms to each family.

The lowest class of mechanics, with wife and family, will frequently occupy only a single room, for which a rent of from 9*s*. to 18*s*. a-month is paid.

The better class of mechanic, with wife and family, will occupy two rooms, and pay a rent of from 18*s*. to 39*s*. a-month.

The best class of skilled artizan, with wife and family, will occupy three or four rooms, and will pay from 2*l*. 5*s*. to 3*l*. 15*s*. a month according to location.

Tenement houses are almost all built upon the same plan. A gloomy stairway in the centre of the building, upon which all the rooms open, and a small paved court, a few feet square, at the rear. The plan of this class of building is considered objectionable, as not being conducive to privacy or domesticity.

The sanitary regulations governing tenement houses are very strict, and it would be well if they were more rigidly enforced. Every tenement house must be provided with a fixed external fire-escape, which consists either of ladders, parallel with the side and extending the whole height of the building, or of ladders

attached, and which can, in case of necessity, be let down from external balconies. These fire-escapes are invariably made wholly of iron.

Single men generally live in boarding-houses, and pay on an average from 12*s.* to 18*s.* a week, and single women from 9*s.* to 13*s.* 6*d.* Board in country towns is proportionally cheaper.

In the city of Philadelphia an eight-room house with water and gas rents from 21*l.* to 45*l.* Single men in boarding-houses pay 15*s.* a week.

In the large manufacturing towns long rows of neat brick houses are constructed for the especial use of the workpeople, and are extremely well kept and the food served in them good.

In the town of Lowell, Massachusets, for instance, there are nearly 14,000 operatives employed in the cotton, woollen, and other industrial establishments, and nearly 9,000 of that number are females. They occupy four-storied houses in the vicinity of the mills. There are about fifty boarders in each house, the women paying 6*s.* 9*d.*, the men 10*s.* 6*d.*, a week, which includes fuel and house washing. At Lowell a good separate house can be rented at about 18*l.* a year.

The worst class of tenement houses are found in the city of New York. Their defective condition is revealed in the last annual Report of the Metropolitan Board of Health of the State of New York. The population of that city in 1865 amounted to 726,386, one-half of which it is estimated live in tenement houses.

The number of tenement houses in the city of New York is at present 18,582, with an average of 21½ persons to each house.

It is recorded that, whilst in the nine months from 1st February to 31st October, 1868, 31,262 private houses, hotels, and boarding-houses gave a mortality of 4,803, tenement houses sent no less than 11,571 persons to the grave in the same period.

A particular square, having an area of 143,312 feet, is described on which 196 families and 889 persons are settled. "A sufficient number," says the Report, "to form a moderate sized town; but they are packed almost as closely as they make graves in ordinary and well-regulated cemeteries."

It is hoped that the disclosures made by the Board of Health will result in a reorganization of the system of tenement houses in New York.

It is claimed, however, that some of them, in which the owners take a personal interest, form an honourable exception to the general rule.

Deposits in Savings' Banks.

One of the surest indications of the true condition of the labouring classes in any country is to be found in the returns of the deposits in savings' banks.

These returns are obtained with difficulty in the United States, but, when procurable, they reveal a steady increase of deposits, more particularly in the Eastern States of the Union, since the close of the war.

A doubt, however, has been thrown by the Special Commissioner of the Revenue in his recent admirable Report on the industries of this country, on the general assumption that the marked augmentation of the deposits in savings' banks indicates a more prosperous condition just at present of the American working classes.

Mr. Wells traces the increase of deposits to the fact that as they are more lightly taxed than any other kind of invested property they form a preferable investment to others, and he states that a new class of people, for whom savings' banks were never designed, and who had no right to avail themselves of the eleemosynary character, have begun to use them, and to deposit the largest sums which are permitted to draw interest. That amount in Massachusetts is required to be less than 200*l.* standing to the credit of one person. But to avoid this restriction, deposits are made in the names of the wife, and minor children, until they often amount to several thousand dollars.

It would appear that, in the Southern States of the Union, the benefits accruing from a use of savings' banks have never been enjoyed to the same extent as in the northern parts of the country, and many of the banks that existed in them became insolvent during the war. It is stated that in Alabama many have closed their business in consequence of the poverty of the people there.

It is possible, however, that the introduction, since the close of the war, of a number of life insurance agencies in that State, which have been highly patronized by all classes of people, may have presented another excellent source of investment, and diverted into its channels many sums that would otherwise have been deposited in savings' banks. In one of the oldest of these latter institutions in Alabama the number of depositors does not exceed 300, and the aggregate amount of their deposits 20,000*l.*; and even this amount shows a decrease of nearly 5,000*l.* within the last three years.

In the State of Virginia the number of depositors and amount of deposits has been annually on the increase since the close of the war.

In the State of Louisiana the bank of deposit at New Orleans counted, in 1865, 716 depositors, the aggregate amount deposited being 27,000*l.*; whilst the number of depositors has increased this year to 1,752, and the amount of deposits to 87,670; and it is not a little creditable to the thriftiness displayed by the recently emancipated negroes that the Freedman's National Savings' Bank at New Orleans already numbers 4,922 depositors, with an aggregate amount of 14,000*l.* deposited.

It may be further stated that at Washington the savings' bank pays out annually upwards of 3,500*l.* in interest, at 5 per cent., to coloured people for money placed by them in deposit. There are about 15,000 depositors.

In some of the industrial States of the Union, respecting which it has been possible to acquire information, the augmentation in the number of depositors, and of the sums deposited in savings' banks within the last few years, has been prodigious. In one establishment in the city of Philadelphia, the number of depositors rose from 12,662 in 1861 to 28,884 this year, and the aggregate amount of deposits from 450,000*l.* in 1861 to 900,000*l.* in 1869. A large portion of the deposits are in sums varying from 3*s.* to 1*l.* 10*s.*

The aggregate amount of deposits in the twenty-eight several savings' banks established in the State of Maine, in 1867, was 800,000*l.*, showing an increase of 200,000*l.* over the amount deposited in 1866. The total number of depositors is 30,528, and the average amount deposited by each, 40*l.*

In the State of New Hampshire there are thirty-

eight saving institutions, and the amount deposited in them last year was 2,340,000*l.*, or nearly 430,000*l.* in excess of that of the previous year.

The deposits in the savings' banks of the State of Massachusetts increased 230 per cent. in the ten years from 1850 to 1860. During the same period the population of the State augmented about 24 per cent.; the total valuation about 50 per cent., and the bank capital (the means required to carry on the business of the State) about 75 per cent. The deposits in the savings' banks amounted, in 1860, to 9,000,000*l.*, and last year to 13,500,000*l.*, showing an increase of 18 per cent. over those of 1867, and of 50 per cent. over those of 1860. The number of savings' banks is 115, and of depositors, 383,094; the average of each depositor's amount at the close of the year being 35*l.*

In the State of New York the deposits in the savings' banks increased from 9,638,000*l.* in 1859 to 24,258,383*l.* this year, being an increase of 151 per cent. in the decade. The total number of savings' banks in operation in the State of New York is 110, of which 32 are in the city of New York, 13 in the adjoining city of Brooklyn, and 65 in other cities of the State.

The proportion of amounts of deposits, of the number of depositors, and average due to each depositor is as follows:—

	Amount of Deposits.	No. of Depositors.	Average due to each Depositor.
	£		£
City of New York ..	150,970,068	355,978	42
City of Brooklyn.. ..	3,265,161	83,934	38
Other cities of the State ..	5,896,154	148,644	39

The following is a Statement of the principal trades and occupations of the depositors in the New York savings' banks, with the per-centage of the deposits of each:—

Domestics	14·71	Hatters	0·24
Labourers	6·00	Engineers	0·23
Sempstresses	3·77	Sugar refiners	0·22
Tailors	1·55	Bar tenders	0·21
Shoemakers	1·16	Printers	0·21
Carpenters	1·00	Weavers	0·20
Masons	0·99	Milkmen	0 20
Coachmen	0·87	Confectioners	0·19
Grocers	0·87	Fruiterers	0·19
Waiters	0·85	Oystermen	0·19
Cartmen	0·82	Moulders	0·18
Machinists	0·73	Upholsterers	0·18
Pedlers	0·68	Boatmen	0·17
Porters	0·62	Saddlers	0·15
Ostlers	0·61	Plumbers	0·12
Butchers	0·59	Coopers	0·12
Farmers	0·50	Boiler makers	0·11
Painters	0·48	Firemen	0·11
Cabinet makers	0·48	Glass cutters	0·10
Police officers	0·47	Bookfolders	0·09
Blacksmiths	0·44	Coachmakers	0·09
Stonecutters	0·44	Turners	0·09
Bakers	0·43	Milliners	0·09
Gardeners	0·36	Hucksters	0·08
Barbers	0·34	Varnishers	0·06
Nurses	0·33	Distillers	0·05
Musicians	0·33	Tanners	0·04
Watchmen	0·27	Cutlers	0·03
Seamen	0·26	Fishermen	0·03
Tinners	0·26	Others not enumerated	55·51
Jewellers	0·26		100·00

The active demand for capital throughout the United States enables savings' banks to dispose of their funds without difficulty, in approved loans, authorized by law, usually at 7 per cent.

In the State of California the dividends of savings' banks range from 10 to 12 per cent.

A comparative Statement of the last three semi-annual reports of eight banks in San Francisco and three country banks, shows the aggregate deposits to have amounted in July 1868 to 4,086,867*l.*, and the number of depositors to 26,807; and in July 1869 to 5,321,614*l.*, and the number of depositors to 34,749, an increase of 29 per cent. on the number of depositors, and of 30 per cent. on that of the deposits. The average credit, at the latter date, to each depositor was 153*l.*

Trades Unions.

Trades Unions, though still inferior in numbers and organization to those in Great Britain, are rapidly being consolidated into a large and powerful interest in the United States.

They exist almost universally among the different classes of skilled artizans in the State of New York.

The increase in the cost of living produced by the late war led to a more extended formation of protective societies, caused, no doubt, in the first instance, by the reluctancy of employers to accede to the just requirements of the employed. As prices became more fixed, and wages abundantly sufficient to furnish the necessaries of life, these societies have become a very serious impediment to industrial undertakings.

In this country much of the skilled labour is performed under contract between the producer and consumers, and master mechanics frequently find themselves prevented from entering into these contracts owing to the instability of the rates of wages demanded by their subordinates.

Nor are the employers the only sufferers by this species of protection; many of the labourers themselves would, if permitted, often willingly accept employment at reduced rates, and are indeed sometimes deprived of the means of gaining a livelihood by the arbitrary rules of the clubs and societies of which they are unwilling members. Indeed, the United States of America form no exception to other countries in regard to the baneful influence of strikes, and hundreds of men are often coerced into quitting their employment, foregoing wages that suited them, and injuring their prospects of future employment in obedience to the inexorable edict of Trades' Unions.

In many of the trades of this country a tendency is remarked to reduce work to "specialities;" that is to say, workmen confine themselves to one description of employment to the exclusion of all other. The system may be a good one in so far as it leads to a certain amount of proficiency in the special branch of trade followed, but it must necessarily tend to paralyze the labour market, at particular times, by cutting off the

whole branch of mechanics whose labour may be essential to carry out any particular work.

The prescriptive nature of American Trades Unions is very formidable. It places restrictions on the number of apprentices to be engaged, it seeks to proscribe the employment of negroes, and sometimes it attempts to shackle the free movement of capital which has been embarked in costly industrial undertakings, in which the workmen have invested nothing.

The manufacturing and most important industries in this country are being gradually concentrated into the hands of large capitalists and powerful corporations, and it is likely, unless wiser counsels prevail, that the struggle between capital and labour, in its associated capacity, will be a long and disastrous one.

The following interesting remarks concerning Trades Unions are contributed by Her Majesty's Consul at Buffalo, in the State of New York.

"Trades Unions," he says, "so congenial, in many respects, to a democratic soil, have taken firmer root, but are by no means either so solidly organized or influential as in England.

"The closer relations between employer and employed, the constant change of the labouring *personnel*, due, not only to the infusion of new blood, and the growth of new industries, but also to the great mobility of the American artizan himself, who is always ready to change his surroundings, and the mixture of nationalities, which interferes directly with harmony of ideas and aims, seem sufficiently to account for this fact.

"I am inclined to believe, from personal observation, that it is only under conditions which bring men together in large bodies, such as iron works, ship-yards, &c., that Trades Unions flourish in America.

"Thus, of various Unions formed in Buffalo, among trades not offering these conditions (house-painters, tailors, shoe-makers, plasterers, sailors, &c.), several have already fallen to pieces, and the remainder show but feeble vitality. The shipwrights, printers, and machinists, on the other hand, are solidly organized, and always ready for action. Strikes have been most common in Buffalo among the workers in iron, but the victory has, generally speaking, rested with the masters."

At the large rolling mills, employing some 700 men,

the dictation of the Unionists, whether as to tariff of pay or employment of individuals, has been uniformly resisted, and almost always with success. A formidable strike in 1867, ramifying from Pittsburg, the centre of the American iron trade, was so efficiently "starved out" at these mills, that the Company were able to impose on the men the signature of an agreement to give, in future, two weeks' notice of any intention to quit work, a similar notice being given on the Company's part of any intended reduction of pay. A few months ago the starting of an additional furnace was taken by the men as evidence of heavy orders, and an increase of wages was immediately demanded. This, after some demur, was granted; but, to balance expenditure, the additional furnace was blown out at the same time. Suspecting a move towards the resumption of the old rate, the whole body of furnacemen struck work, but were considerably dismayed, on claiming the fortnight's arrears, which it is the rule of these establishments to retain, to find payment refused on the plea of their violation of the agreement referred to.

It is not easy to procure copies of the rules of Trades Unions, but the "Constitution of the Buffalo Typographical Union" will serve as a fair specimen of these documents.

The chief objects of the Union are defined to be the maintenance of a fair rate of wages, the encouragement of good workmen and the use of every means which may tend to the elevation of printers in the scale of social life; the adoption at any future period of a scale of prices for the government of the profession, any printer departing from which shall not be considered a proper person to be a member of the Union; and the affording "such relief as may be politic" to sick and unemployed members, and providing for their proper burial in case of death. The officers are, a President, a Vice-President, three Secretaries (Recording, Financial, and Corresponding), a Treasurer, who is required to give a bond in the sum of 40*l.*, and a "Sergeant-at-arms" to eject improper persons, introduce members elect, &c. The initiation fee is not less than 8*s.*, and the monthly contribution is 1*s.* All members, on initiation, pledge their honour to support the Constitution, and to keep the deliberations and proceedings of the Union "profoundly secret."

Twelve shillings a-week, rising, to 1*l.*, on a two-third vote of the members present, is granted to sick

or distressed members, after proper investigation of the case.

No member shall join a strike until the cause of complaint has been laid before a meeting composed of at least one-half of the members of the Union, "and it shall take two-thirds present to order a strike."

"Delinquent members" are defined as those in three months arrears of dues, those who work in an office where "rats" are employed, or who "violate in any way the constitution, the scale of prices, or other regulations of the Union."

The Protective Union of Shoemakers known as the "Knights of St. Crispin" is one of the most powerful and arbitrary of American associations. An article of its constitution forbids members to teach any part of the trade without permission of the lodge, duly expressed by a three-fourths vote: though a father is allowed to teach his own son.

This society was organized less than three years ago. The original lodge was composed of seven members only, but the association numbers at present upwards of 50,000 persons, of whom 18,000 reside in the city of New York and the vicinity.

The following is a list of some of the principal Trades Unions in the United States:—

Trades.	No. of Branches.	No. of Members.	Average Wages.
Knights of St. Crispin ..	147	50,000	51*s.* a week.
Miners	30	30,000	
Iron moulders ..	204	17,000	10*s.* 6*d.* a day.
Bricklayers	70	15,000	13*s.* 6*d.* to 15*s.* a day.
Typographical Union ..	112	14,000	
Machinists and blacksmiths ..	120	10,000	10*s.* 6*d.* a day.
Carpenters and joiners ..	77	6,000	9*s.* to 12*s.* a day.
Cigar-makers	95	5,000	45*s.* to 60*s.* a week.
Coopers' Union	20	5,000	12*s.* to 13*s.* 6*d.* a day.
Locomotive firemen	35	3,000	7*l.* a month.
Cigar-packers	25	2,500	
Plasterers	18	2,500	13*s.* 6*d.* to 15*s.* a day.
Tailors	35	2,000	27*s.* to 30*s.* a week, 16 hours' work a day.
Masons	8	2,000	
Iron founders	48	1,600	
Painters	3	1,500	
Metal workers	5	850	
Engineers	11	621	

MISCELLANEOUS Trades Unions, Societies, and Associations in the State and City of New York.

	No. of Members.	Average Wages.
Brass founders	200	
Brass moulders	100	63*s.* a-week.
Bakers	3,200	51*s.* to 54*s.* a-week.
Butchers	100	
Barbers	200	45*s.* to 60*s.* a-week.
Bookbinders	425	60*s.* a-week.
Blank bookbinders	125	60*s.* a-week.
Clothing cutters	700	48*s.* to 72*s.* a-week.
Curriers..	90	45*s.* to 60*s.* a-week.
Coach painters	135	
Cartmen	250	7*s.* 6*d.* to 9*s.* a-day.
Cabinet makers	2,800	57*s.* to 63*s.* a-week.
Carvers	500	45*s.* to 90*s.* a-week.
Dry goods clerks	700	45*s.* to 54*s.* a-week.
Framers..	1,500	54*s.* to 60*s.* a-week.
Gas and steam-fitters ..	115	
Gilders	450	9*s.* to 12*s.* a-day.
Hod carriers	2,500	48*s.* to 54*s.* a-week.
Hatters	1,000	75*s.* to 90*s.* a-week.
Jewellers	1,000	75*s.* a-week.
Journeymen horse-shoers ..	300	9*s.* to 12*s.* a-day.
Longshore painters	135	
Metal roofers	75	
Millers	250	45*s.* to 60*s.* a-week.
Newspaper dealers	200	
Operative painters	900	13*s.* 6*d.* a-day.
Operative masons	2,000	15*s.* a-day.
Pastry cooks	100	36*s.* to 10*l.* a-week.
Polishers	250	60*s.* to 75*s.* a-week.
Paper-hangers	500	45*s.* to 54*s.* a-week.
Piano-makers	2,170	45*s.* to 75*s.* a-week.
Plumbers	670	72*s.* to 81*s.* a-week.
Sawyers	320	45*s.* to 60*s.* a-week.
Sailmakers, &c., in Ship business ..	15,000	
Stone cutters	4,000	60*s.* a-week.
Trunk-makers	500	
Tin roofers	350	54*s.* to 72*s.* a-week.
Upholsterers	70	60*s.* to 75*s.* a-week.
Varnishers	450	60*s.* to 75*s.* a-week.
Wood turners	100	36*s.* to 60*s.* a-week.
Stair builders	120	11*s.* to 12*s.* a-day.
Longshoremen	4,500	1*s.* 4*d.* per hour.
Labourers	1,500	8*s.* 3*d.* to 12*s.* a-day.
House smiths	500	12*s.* to 13*s.* 6*d.* a-day.
Capmakers	400	7*s.* 6*d.* to 9*s.* a-day.
Morocco finishers	125	8*s.* 3*d.* to 12*s.* a-day.
Coach drivers	500	5*s.* 3*d.* to 12*s.* a-day.
Slate roofers	35	11*s.* 3*d.* to 12*s.* a-day.
Boiler makers	250	8*s.* 3*d.* to 9*s.* 9*d.* a-day.
Stone rubbers	500	10*s.* 6*d.* to 12*s.* a-day.
Tinsmiths	300	7*s.* 6*d.* to 9*s.* a-day.
Pencil-case makers	90	54*s.* to 60*s.* a-week.

Strikes.

The disastrous conflict between labour and capital is nowhere more persistently waged than in the United States of America.

Strikes on the part of operatives are obstinately contested, of long duration, and unfortunately of but too frequent occurrence.

Most of the trades in this country are organized, or are in course of being so, each having its respective association with branch unions in different parts of the States, and mutual aid and succour, both moral and financial, is given by the various unions in support of strikes inaugurated by members belonging to them.

The usual cause of industrial difficulties arises either from resistance to a proposed reduction of wages, from an endeavour to procure an increase of them, or from a desire to curtail the ordinary hours of labour.

Strikes amongst operatives are frequently attended with success to the workmen, but as frequently result in favour of employers, owing, not a little, to the existence of a considerable amount of available labour caused by the steady influx of immigration.

Of the many strikes that have taken place (for the most part in the State of New York) within the last two years, the following may be instanced.

Stonemasons struck for an increase of pay from 12*s.* a day to 13*s.* 8*d.*; House-painters for an increase from 6*s.* to 7*s.* 8*d.*; Hack-drivers for an increase from 3*s.* 9*d.* a day to 9*s.*; drivers of street railway cars for an increase from 6*s.* to 7*s.* 8*d.*; iron-moulders at Williamsport for an increase from 9*s.* to 15*s.* The men on this strike were supported by their union at the rate of 1*l.* 7*s.* for married and 15*s.* a week for single men.

Journeymen cap makers struck for an advance of wages amounting to 9*s.* a day; and house-smiths who were earning as high wages as 15*s.* a day, struck for an increase of pay for the men in the trade who were in receipt of less than 12*s.* a day. Weavers, owing to a reduction on their wages of $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ per yard, struck for a resumption of former prices. Nearly 300 brakemen on the Erie Railroad struck work in consequence of the discharge of some of their number, and also for an increase of pay from 2*s.* 3*d.* a day to 6*s.* The mechanics

and blacksmiths working in the different shops of the Erie railway successfully struck in consequence of the irregularity occasioned in making them their monthly payments. The carpenters and joiners in New York struck for an increase of wages from 10*s*. 6*d*. to 14*s*, a day. They were upwards of five weeks on strike, and obtained a partial success. Stablemen struck for an advance of wages amounting to 1*s*. 6*d*. a day, and were unsuccessful. The ship-carpenters and caulkers of Oswego quitted their work for upwards of four months in the hopes of obtaining a reduction of their day's work to eight hours: they were unsuccessful. The masons, labourers, and derrickmen of New York struck for an increase of wages from 7*s*. 6*d*. to 9*s*. a day. The printers of Brooklyn struck work in order to obtain similar pay to that given to printers in New York. Although they were successful, the employers refused to re-engage the men who had quitted their establishments on strike. A portion of the journeymen tailors at New York struck against a proposed reduction of prices. A number of union men were arrested and placed under bail for trial for warning men away from shops on strikes; when the trial, however, took place they were acquitted.

The telegraphic operators on the Franklin Line struck for an advance of 25 per cent. on their pay, which averaged 8*l*. 5*s* a-month, whilst that on other lines exceeded 13*l*. 10*s*. The bricklayers (German) of New York were on strike for fourteen weeks, during which time they expended upwards of 4,000*l*. They demanded, unsuccessfully, that eight hours instead of ten should constitute a day's work. The cigar makers of New York struck for an advance of wages, and effected a compromise with their employers. The journeymen barbers in New York struck for an augmentation to the 6*s*. a-day they were receiving. These men have organized a protective society, with a view to obtaining a reduction of their hours of labour, and an increase of pay. At present they work from fourteen to fifteen hours a-day at 2*l*. 2*s*. a-week.

Oil-factory operatives, brick makers on the River Hudson, hat-finishers in New Jersey, and the clothing manufacturers in New York (who make up goods for the large clothing warehouses) have likewise been on strike for an increase of pay.

Cabinet makers struck in opposition to a wish of

their employers to change the system of work to piece-work. The men claimed that, by the old system they could earn from 3*l.* to 3*l.* 6*s.* a-week, but by the new from 2*l.* 2*s.* to 2*l.* 5*s.* only. The sounding-board makers of an important piano factory struck work on account of a threatened reduction of 10 per cent. on their wages, and effected a compromise of 7 per cent. on their former rate of pay. One thousand operatives employed in an important carpet manufactory in New York struck against a reduction of 10 per cent. on their wages. A compromise was effected by the men accepting 5 per cent. reduction. Journeymen framers were on strike for an advance of wages, and succeeded in obtaining from 3*l.* 15*s.* to 4*l.* 4*s.* a-week. Boot crimpers in Massachusetts struck for an advance of 20 per cent on their wages. The plate printers, in New York, employed in the National Bank Note Company, struck in consequence of their being required to print the new fractional currency from plates larger than those previously used. The men demanded an increase of pay averaging from 3*l.* to 3*l.* 15*s.* a-week. After six weeks' cessation of work a compromise was effected.

The potterymen engaged on the extensive works at Trenton, in New Jersey, were on strike during several months against a proposed reduction of their wages. Their conduct entailed an estimated loss of 70,000*l.* on their employers, and of 10,000*l.* on themselves. The cordwainers of New York struck, during a period of nine months, against a proposed reduction of their wages, amounting to 20 per cent. They were partially successful, as were the cordwainers of Troy in New York, who, after being on strike during several weeks, successfully resisted a reduction of their wages.

The coopers in New York struck for an increase of 1½*d.* on each barrel manufactured, and obtained an advance of 1*d.* Coopers engaged in another sort of work demanded, and obtained an advance of 25 per cent. on their former wages. Slate-roofers were equally successful in obtaining an increase to 12*s.* a-day on their wages, and leave to quit work at 4 o'clock on Saturdays. Labourers and quarrymen obtained an advance of 9*d.* a-day. The New York Carvers' Association (German) struck for an advance of 20 per cent. on their wages, but were unsuccessful, as were the United Cabinet

Makers (German) for an advance of wages from 2*l.* 5*s.* to 2*l.* 14*s.* a-week. Piano makers (German) struck for an advance of 10 per cent. on their wages, and having obtained it, again struck, a few months afterwards, for another advance of 10 per cent., which they failed to obtain. The men who took a prominent part in the strike were proscribed by employers, and prevented from obtaining work. The bakers of New York, who were working from fifteen to twenty hours a-day at from 1*l.* 1*s.* to 1*l.* 16*s.* a-week unsuccessfully struck for an increase of wages. They were joined by the German bakers of the city, who demanded an increase to 2*l.* 14*s.* a-week and twelve hours as the limit of work in the twenty-four hours. The puddlers and iron-workers at Troy in the State of New York, were on strike during four months for an advance of wages, based on the rise in the price of manufactured iron. They were unsuccessful.

Female operatives frequently follow the example set them by the sterner sex; thus the laundresses and collar girls at Troy struck for an advance of their weekly wages which ranged for the former from 1*l.* 4*s.* to 1*l.* 10*s.*, and for the latter from 1*l.* 16*s.* to 3*l.* 15*s.* The female cap-makers in New York likewise struck for an advance of wages. The shoemakers (male) of New York, were successful in their strike for an increase of pay.

Nearly 2,000 of the shop tailors of New York struck for an advance of 25 to 30 per cent. on the prices of their work. The movement affected indirectly 30,000 persons engaged in the trade. The average earnings of these operatives was 1*l.* 10*s.* a-week, but many of them could not earn more than 1*l.* 1*s.* After a strike of nearly six weeks' duration, a compromise was effected with most of the leading houses, and work resumed. The incomplete success of the movement was ascribed to the want of unity existing among the men who are now being more thoroughly organized when, very possibly another strike will be inaugurated.

The waiters at the principal hotels in New York, in some of which upwards of 100 are employed at a time, simultaneously struck for an increase of pay to 4*l.* 15*s.* with board, a-week, from the 4*l.* 10*s.* they were receiving previously. The waiters maliciously selected the New York dining-hour for quitting their employers; after

serving the first course of the repast they marched out of the different hotels in a body.

Employers were enabled to supply their places in a few days. The strikers were the persons most injured, and waiters belonging to unions will find it difficult in future to obtain employment. A remarkable strike, recalling the ignorance and fanaticism of a past age, occurred in the mines of Grass Valley, in the State of Nevada, resulting in the closing of two important mines that yielded about 14,000*l.* a-month. Three hundred miners, principally Cornishmen, who were in receipt of 20*s.* a-day, struck against the use of an improved description of blasting powder which was found to effect a considerable saving of labour. These men insisted that the Cornish system of mining should be followed and no other.

A few months ago a strike occurred in a large boot and shoe manufactory in the State of California. It was said at first that a cessation of business was inevitable, but it was soon announced that Chinese labour had been introduced at 16*s.* a-day, and so successful did it prove that the managers report they will soon require as many white men for overseers, as were previously employed as working hands.

What a homily on the selfish cry generally raised by the working classes in this country, that the Mongolian race will interfere prejudicially with the labour market!

The most important strike that has occurred of late years in this country, took place during the summer of the present year, in the anthracite coal regions of Pennsylvania, and lasted, off and on, for about six months. It was the third that has taken place in the coal districts within the last four years. Its history is a curious one. The movement at first partook of the character of a subtle financial operation on the part of the speculators and large coal corporations, interested in maintaining the price of fuel, and did not appear to originate in any alleged grievance on the part of the miners. During the spring of the present year which succeeded an unusually mild winter, a stock of fuel amounting to 700,000 tons was found to remain on the market. The existence of so large a surplus would, it was feared, cause

a decline in the price of coal, so, to the great prejudice of every consumer in the country, a temporary stoppage of production was determined on. It should be stated, that the capacity of the Pennsylvania colleries if worked at full time, is estimated to exceed the yearly demand for anthracite coal (at the usual prices obtained for it) by 1,000,000 of tons.

Weeks and weeks rolled on amidst silent and deserted collieries, and 30,000 unemployed and distressed operatives, whilst a great industry engrossing a capital of 20,000,000*l.* was totally disorganized. Nevertheless, the primary object was gained and the price of coal kept up. The stock on hand in the month of June, was less by 1,000,000 of tons than that on the market at the same period in 1868.

The amicable relations that existed during the earlier stages of the suspension, between masters and men were seriously affected when a combined attempt was made by the latter not only to control the affairs of their employers and participate in their profits, but to specify also the labour to be employed, and in defiance of the laws of supply and demand to fix arbitrarily the minimum price at which coal in future should be sold. The miners demanded, as a condition to their resuming work, an advance of wages based on the selling price of coal. In the Schuylkill, Northumberland, and Columbia counties the amount of wages to be paid was based on an average of 10*s.* as the selling price of a ton of coal placed on the railway or in the boats at Port Carbon which is a shipping port in the coal districts. On this basis the miners were to receive 2*l.* 2*s.* a-week, inside labourers 1*l.* 16*s.*, and outside labourers 1*l.* 10*s.* Miners who worked by contract were to be paid in proportion at higher rates. For every advance of 9*d.* above the 10*s.*, average price fixed, labour was to receive 5 per cent. on the advance. In the event of the price of coal falling below 10*s.* then an immediate suspension of mining operations was to take place. On the Lebigh, and in the Wilkesbarre and Lackawauna regions, wages were to be based on an average of 1*l.* sterling, as the selling price of a ton of coal placed on the boats at Elizabeth Port, which is the nearest shipping point to New York, with a per-centage of advance on every 9*d.* coal advanced on board the vessels.

The miners' "basis," as it was termed, was after a severe struggle acquiesced in by all the Pennsylvania Coal Companies with the exception of three of the most powerful and wealthy of them, who being transporters as well as miners of coal feared lest the "basis" system might be demanded as well in the transportation of coal and in their workshops. They offered, however, to pay their men, if they would resume work, even higher wages than other companies were paying who had adopted the "basis," and the men who had been nearly starved out by the three rich companies concluded to go to work with the determination, however, of doing their best, sooner or later, to carry their point with regard to the "basis."

The great difficulty experienced by the operators of the coal mines, during the strike, proceeded from the fact that, whilst the miners were organized, they were not, and although they contended that the "basis" was an unfair one, giving to labour more than its just share, still they were, as a class, powerless to resist. They have, however, now formed an organization and have taken the initiative in offering a "basis" of their own, embodying what they consider a fair proportion of wages. They fix the price of coal at Port Carbon at 6*s*. per ton, miner's wages at 1*l*. 14*s*. 6*d*., inside labourers 1*l*. 5*s*. 6*d*., and outside labourers at 1*l*. 2*s*. 6*d*. Should coal or wages fall below these prices then a suspension of production will take place.

Thus a final settlement of the disagreement is still pending.

As a choice between strikes and a "basis," established on fair principles, the coal operators prefer the "basis" system inasmuch as they can enter into contracts with greater safety than when threatened by a recurrence of strikes.

It is probable that the "basis" system will eventually prevail although the terms on which it may be established may differ in different counties according to their respective outlets to market. It is believed, however, that those companies that combine mining with carrying operations will endeavour to break up the "basis" system, but should the demand for coal be good they are not likely to succeed, without dissensions should arise among the miners themselves, who from all appearances are at present very firmly united together.

That a steady supply of fuel, at fair prices, should be denied to the citizens of a country so pre-eminently endowed by nature with bountiful deposits of coal has excited a general feeling of indignation which has given rise to violent recriminations on the part of the different persons to whom blame attached for having caused so disastrous a condition of affairs.

Thus the proprietors of the coal mines justify their resistance to the demands of the miners by pointing out the impossibility of submitting to the interference of, or admitting men to a share in the profits of, costly undertakings to which they have contributed no capital. The great transportation companies seek to palliate the increase of the rate of tolls, which had caused a proportionate augmentation in the price of coal, by claiming their right to indemnity for losses sustained by the interruption of their regular business. And, lastly, the miners represent themselves as a most hardly used class of operatives, engaged on a toilsome and perilous occupation at inadequate wages, in the service of masters whose gains are to be reckoned by thousands.

As generally happens in similar cases the poorer classes who purchase fuel in small quantities have been the principal sufferers by the "coal strike," and retail dealers have derived no inconsiderable profits from the disorganized state of the market.

There are to-day 300,000 tons less coal mined during the year than there was this time last year; but fortunately the winter bids fair to be a mild one, and consequently the deficiency will not be severely felt.

The effect, however, of the late disorder in the coal trade has been to create a very earnest desire on the part of the public to open out new sources of supply, and thus destroy a monopoly which is becoming every day more powerful as it is gradually concentrated into fewer hands.

The rich bituminous coals of the State of Maryland, though lower in price than the Pennsylvanian anthracite, have hitherto, except for manufacturing railway and steamboat purposes, been little employed for domestic use. As the mining operations in that State have hitherto been conducted without disturbance it is not improbable that there will be a better market for the bituminous coal.

The total amount of coal produced during the present year in the United States is estimated at 30,000,000 tons, about equally divided between anthracite and bituminous. The increase of the latter produced this year over last has been about 800,000 tons.

One of the most efficacious remedies, however, against future complications in the coal trade is looked for in the repeal of the Customs duties on foreign coal. The present duty is 5*s.* on a ton of 2,240 lbs. On coke and culm of coal 25 per cent. *ad valorem.* On "other coal," applying chiefly to the cannel coal imported from Great Britain for illuminating purposes, 1*s.* 8*d.* a ton.

By a repeal of these duties the door would be opened to the rich Nova Scotian coals which are within such easy water transit of the New England States and the City of New York.

For some years previous to the war of 1861 the highest wholesale price of coal in Philadelphia did not exceed 16*s.* the ton. During the war when labour was scarce the price increased from 1*l.* 2*s.* in 1862 to 2*l.* in 1864.

In the month of May of the present year coal had fallen to its old price of 16*s.*, but owing to the strike in Pennsylvania is now selling at 1*l.* 4*s.* wholesale, and 1*l.* 13*s.* retail.

Were it possible to remove the disturbing elements in the coal trade, the wholesale price of coal at New York might never exceed 18*s.*, and still pay a fair remuneration to persons engaged in the trade.

Co-operation.

The Executive Committee of the Tailors' Union in New York, on notifying the cessation of a strike, in which the trade had been engaged, expressed the following sentiment:—"Let our aim be to throw overboard the system of strikes, and commence to fight with the strongest weapon, co-operation."

It would appear, indeed, that the advantage to be derived by co-operative associations, as opposed to the disturbing influences of strikes, is beginning to dawn on the mind of the American operative.

Heretofore the principle of co-operation, whether for

productive or distributive purposes, has been but partially practised; not but what the American Continent has witnessed some marvellous effects of co-operative enterprizes, undertaken by enthusistic men, bound together by that strongest of human ties—religious community of feeling.

Thus, the Mormons at Salt Lake City, transformed a wilderness into a garden; thus, the Shakers, Economists, Perfectionists, and other societies of equally strange denomination, have from time to time established thriving Colonies in various parts of the Union.

It is only, however, within a comparatively recent period, that co-operative associations by artizans have been successfully organized, and they have, in most instances, been the result of protracted strikes on the part of different trades.

Of the 123 different organizations represented this year at the Labour Convention held at Philadelphia, about 100 were of Trades Unions, and only 4 laid claim to represent, distinctively, co-operative principles, or to have co-operation as their leading feature.

In New York several co-operative land and building societies are at present in successful operation; and they have been formed principally with a view to supplying the labouring classes with homes of their own.

A number of co-operative foundries have likewise been started in the States of New York and Massachusetts. They have proved a marked success, exceeding, so it is reported, the expectation of the most sanguine friends of co-operation; rivaling private establishments in the saving of material, and the superior quality of their work.

One of the most prosperous co-operative associations in the United States, is the Iron Foundry established at Troy, in the State of New York. It was started in the month of May, 1866, with a capital of about 2,700*l.* paid in. A charter was procured, and the shares were fixed at 20*l.*, and limited by the Legislature to 2,000 in number, of which a member could not hold less than one, or more than fifty. Each member was entitled to one vote, irrespective of the number of shares he held.

During the first year, thirty-two men; during the second year, seventy-five; and during the present year, eighty-five men found employment in the foundry.

A dividend of 10 per cent. on the stock (the largest allowable by law), was made the first year, and about 30 per cent. more was paid on "labour." The second year the dividends on stock and labour amounted to 89 per cent.; and this year, it is believed, they will reach 90 or 100 per cent.

The Article of the bye laws regulating the payment of dividends, &c., is as follows:—

"Article 14. From the profits of the business of the association, the trustees may declare and pay a dividend not to exceed 10 per annum on the capital stock thereof; after said dividend, if there should remain undivided profits, the trustees may declare and pay a dividend on the labour performed for the benefit of the association; and it shall be equal in amount to each stockholder, except to minors, and those refusing employment, or those discharged for misconduct."

To illustrate the operation of the foregoing Article, let it be supposed that A holds forty shares, and B ten shares. A received last year four additional shares as payment of the dividend on his stock, and about 90*l.* as his dividend on his labour. All labourers share alike of the excess of profits over 10 per cent. The man who fills the furnace receives as large a dividend "on labour" as the skilled moulder or mounter; the stockholder, who is not a labourer, receives an equal dividend on labour as the others, although he may have performed no work whatever.

Great importance is attached to the employment only of a limited number of men. A co-operative foundry being distinct from a co-operative shop. The fewer the stockholders in a foundry, the greater the chance of success: whilst in a shop the more numerous the stockholders and customers, the greater amount of prosperity is likely to be acquired.

By limiting the number of stockholders in the foundry, constant work, at regular wages, is assured. If necessary, at busy moments, "outsiders" are employed.

It is asserted, that the moulders, finishers, mounters, &c., in the co-operative foundry, can earn, owing to their steady employment throughout the year, about 35*l.* a-year more than the same men, at similar wages, would or could earn in any foundry conducted as a private enterprise in the same city. Every man belonging to it

made last year, in addition to his stock dividend, about 122*l*., that is, 35*l*. 10*s*. excess of wages, and 86*l*. 10*s*. labour dividend.

The profits of the establishment have not been paid out to the individuals, and scattered abroad, but additional stock has been issued and the money retained to enlarge the business. When a man's stock has accumulated until he has more than the legal number of shares (50) the surplus has been bought in and re-issued to new members. Thus the increased capital has given employment to more men, and the business naturally and safely enlarged.

The force now employed is nearly treble what it was when the works began operation. The dimensions of the foundry have likewise been more than trebled by devoting portions of the annual profits to that purpose.

The great economy in the use of materials has further increased the profits of the association. No waste is permitted, and indeed the individual interest of every man prompts him to avoid any, and every scrap of iron is carefully picked up and utilized, which in private establishments would be thrown away. When the association was first started the majority of men composing it were Irish, and it is stated that persons of that nationality are above all other mechanics in this country the most eager to engage in co-operative enterprises.

The strictness of the regulations in the establishment under consideration enforce the maintenance of great discipline. Express articles are framed to prevent a refusal to perform any work enjoined by the foreman, or an evasion of it; also to guard against drunkenness, waste, and insubordination of any kind. A stockholder can be dismissed at any moment, even if he holds fifty shares, and can have no redress. The consequence is that every man is on his good behaviour.

Speculation in shares by any dismissed stockholder is rendered impossible in consequence of the association being empowered to transfer or retire stock at their option. Thus, in the supposed case of the dismissal of a man holding fifty shares, the stock would be retired, the 1,000*l*. paid off, and the stock sold to other mechanics.

As the capital increases, it is contemplated admitting new members, to construct new buildings, and to add

new machines, until the limit of 40,000*l.* capital is reached. There have as yet been no cash dividends; all profits have gone to swell the stock. At the end of the year the co-operatives have found themselves in the receipt of only as much cash as they would have received at any other establishment for the same amount of labour; but there has been placed as much more, or nearly as much more, to each man's credit in a stock on which he can instantly raise the cash if necessary. Take the case of A, before supposed, with forty shares of stock. His account, supposing his wages averaged 7*s.* 6*d.* a day for 300 working days, would have stood thus in 1868:—

	£	*s.*
Cash Income from Wages, 300 days, at 7*s.* 6*d.* ..	112	0
Stock Income, 10 per cent., on 800*l.*	80	0
Stock Income on Labour as actually paid in 1868 ..	86	10
Total	£278	10

He will thus have received fully, if not more, than the usual income of a mechanic, besides stock which he could sell for cash to the amount of 200*l.* without touching his principal of 800*l.* This additional stock draws, of course, a 10 per cent. dividend next year.

The German United Cabinet Makers have established a building association in New York, limiting the number to 700. Each member is entitled to a building lot, valued at 50*l.*, upon the payment of 8*s.* a-week.

The Journeymen Printers' Co-operative Association is composed of twenty-five members, and was started in 1866. It is now stated to be doing a large amount of book and job work, besides printing several weekly and monthly publications regularly. In consequence of the success achieved by this association a similar one was recently undertaken, but failed, owing, it is said, to the large number of members composing it; experience having demonstrated the fact that the chance of harmony and success is greatest when the number of partners to such associations in general is limited, and the weekly instalments larger.

The Tailors' Co-operative Union was started in New York in the spring of the present year, on a stock capital of 4*s.* a-week subscription of eighteen members. The value of the stock on hand at present amounts to about

200*l*., which sum represents the profits of nine months, plus the weekly instalment of the eighteen workmen to whom constant employment has been given.

The New York Co-operative Building Lot Association is one of the most successful in the city. It was organized in 1868, and is incorporated in the States of New York and New Jersey. The object of the association is to buy land by the acre at wholesale prices, and to furnish it to members at cost prices. Members are allowed to select their own plots at will, and if two or three should happen to choose the same plot they are then required to hand in sealed bids, which are opened at a Board meeting, when the highest bidder is given the preference.

The association likewise purchases private plots for individuals who are unable to find anything suitable to them in the estates of the association, The expenses attending such purchases are defrayed out of the reserved fund.

Members thus obtaining property can sell or transfer the same, and retain any profits arising therefrom.

With a view to satisfying as far as possible the different members of the association, purchases of land are made in different sections of the neighbourhood of New York. The number of members is limited to 1,000, and each one is allowed to take at least two, but not more than eight shares. Every member is required to pay a weekly tax of 1*s*. on every share he may hold, and a further sum of 1*s*. is exacted twice a year on every share, in order to defray the working expenses of the association. The only salaried officer of the society is the Secretary.

The receipts of the association amounted in the five and a-half months, from 10th February, 1868, to 1st July, 1869, to 5,627*l*., and the expenditures to 4,918*l*. The association has paid, during the eighteen months of its existence, the sum of 3,341*l*., on property which cost the association 10,807*l*.

The number of members at present is 726, of which 170 are owners of 500 lots.

A great disadvantage at which the artizan classes in the United States is placed, is owing to the fact of their being compelled to purchase at retail, and in small

quantities, the various commodities of daily life, after so many intermediate persons have obtained a profit on them. Every day the necessity is more keenly felt of bringing the consumer into more immediate relations with the producer. The infinity of small retail shops in this country is prodigious, and not only is the system detrimental to the community at large, by diverting a very considerable number of persons from productive industries, but it raises the price of nearly every article sold to workpeople by about 50 per cent.

With a view to ameliorating the condition of their operatives, many large employers of labour in manufacturing and mining districts have organized well-stored shops, at which their men can provide themselves with the very best of goods at almost cost price.

But co-operative stores, which have been so successfully established in Great Britain, are little known in this country. Their formation has frequently been attempted in New York, but they have almost invariably failed of success, owing more it is said to the dishonesty of the proprietors, or managers, than to any want of zeal on the part of the members of the societies.

The most numerous and thriving co-operative provision stores are found in the State of Massachusetts.

There are upwards of a dozen of them numbering an aggregate membership of 2,700 persons, and a capital of over 10,000. The Charleston Society is one of the most prosperous.

It owns two stores and has sold during the three years it has been in operation about 50,000*l.* worth of goods, and distributed among members and patrons about 1,500*l.* in cash.

The Knights of St. Crispin (a powerful organization of shoemakers), have established successfully in the State of Massachusetts co-operative associations for the purchase and distribution of groceries, coal, &c., amongst their members; and at North Bridgewater sixty workmen have inaugurated a co-operative store with a capital of 90*l.* at 1*l.* 10*s.* shares. They were assisted in their enterprise by a lodge of the Crispin brotherhood, and in the first month the store was opened they realized a profit of 30*l.* The daily sales now average a value of 30*l.*

Three essential requisites, however, are needed to the success of co-operative enterprises, viz. :—Business ability, patience, and mutual confidence; however much the Americans excel in the first of these qualities, it can hardly be denied that they are, as a rule, somewhat deficient of the other two.

(Signed) FRANCIS CLARE FORD.

No. 16.

Lord Lyons to the Earl of Clarendon.—(Received December 22.)

My Lord, *Paris, December* 20, 1869.

I HAVE the honour to transmit herewith to your Lordship a copy of a despatch from Mr. Malet, and a report on the artizan and industrial classes which he has drawn up, in pursuance of the instruction contained in your Lordship's Circular despatch of the 20th April last.

Mr. West, on becoming Minister *ad interim* here at the end of September, confided to Mr. Malet the execution of your Lordship's instruction. Having carefully read the report which Mr. Malet has in consequence drawn up, I am able confidently to recommend it to your Lordship as containing a mass of valuable and interesting information, collected and arranged with much skill and ability. It affords certainly a remarkable proof of diligence, as during the greater part of the short time allotted to him for the preparation of it, Mr. Malet discharged also the laborious duties of Head of the Chancery of this Embassy.

I have, &c.

(Signed) LYONS.

Inclosure 1 in No. 16.

Mr Malet to Lord Lyons.

My Lord, *Paris, December* 20, 1869.

I HAVE the honour to inclose to your Excellency a report on the artizan and industrial classes in France, which I have drawn up by Mr. West's desire in compliance with the instructions contained in the Earl of Clarendon's despatch, marked Circular, of the 20th April last.

I have, &c.

(Signed) EDWARD B. MALET.

Inclosure 2 in No. 16.

Report by Mr. Malet on the Industrial and Artizan Classes in France.

SECTION I.—PROPORTION OF THE ARTIZAN AND INDUSTRIAL CLASSES TO OTHER CLASSES.

THE population of France was 38,067,064 in 1866.

The following Table gives the number of persons living, directly or indirectly, by the professions mentioned:—

TABLE 1.

	Males.	Females.	Total.	Proportion to 10,000 Inhabitants.	In 1861.
I. Agriculture	9,737,295	9,860,820	19,598,115	5,194	5,316
II. Industry	5,574,818	5,384,273	10,959,091	2,879	2,735
III. Commerce	737,675	779,483	1,517,158	399	392
IV. Professions connected with agriculture, industry, and commerce	607,491	488,296	1,095,787	287	267
V. Various professions	89,885	108,754	198,639	52	46
VI. Liberal professions and persons living on their own means*	1,782,089	1,825,206	3,607,295	948	919
VII. Various conditions..	288,077	276.264	564,341	147	159
VIII. Professions unknown	196,749	329,889	526,638	139	166
Total equalling the population ..	19,014,079	19,052,985	38,067,064	10,000	10,000

* In this class are included persons living by means of their real property; 2, personal property; 3, persons living on half-pay and pensioned; 4, refugees.

Supposing this classification to be correct the proportion of persons living by agriculture, of various conditions and of unknown professions must have decreased, and the industrial classes especially must have increased.

Leaving out those of no profession, and those whose profession is unknown, the comparison is as follows :—

Table 2.

	1861.	1866.
Agriculture	5,495	5,300
Industrial professions	2,827	2,964
Commerce	405	411
Professions connected with the above ..	275	296
Various professions	48	54
Liberal professions, independent persons ..	940	975
	10,000	10,000

On the whole, the proportion of the population divided into the above classes is pretty much the same, at the two periods 1861 and 1866 : it may, therefore, be assumed to be tolerably correct. It allows the conclusion that agriculture supports more than half the population ; industry and commerce only a third. One person in ten is supported by the liberal professions or by private means.

The above distribution differs considerably according to the Departments, as may be seen by the following Table, in which the Departments are named in the order in which their professional classes attain the highest numbers, so as to show, in proportion to 10,000, which possess the greater numbers living by agriculture, industry, &c.

Table 3.

Agriculture.

Hautes Alpes ..	7,945	Puy de Dôme ..	7,402
Lot	7,937	Landes	7,388
Corrèze	7,906	Ariège	7,373
Savoie	7,774	Lozère	7,240
Basses Alpes ..	7,550	Gers	7,213
Haute Savoie ..	7,443	Charente	7,121
Dordogne	7,404	Hautes Pyrenées ..	7,062

Industry.

Nord	5,206	Seine Inférieure	4,268
Seine	5,070	Aisne	4,163
Rhone	4,723	Bouches du Rhone	3,915
Ardennes	4,674	Loire	3,880
Somme	4,471	Oise	3,868
Haute Rhin	4,458		

Commerce.

Seine	1,121	Bouches du Rhone	631
Seine Inférieure	824	Seine et Oise	527
Rhone	656	Loire	512

Professions connected with Agriculture, Industry, or Commerce (means of Transport, Financial Institutions, &c.)

Bouches du Rhone	1,464	Seine Inférieure	544
Seine	660	Haute Garonne	431
Gironde	559	Gard	424

Various Professions.

Seine	386	Rhone	105
Gironde	168		

Liberal Professions and Private Means.

Corsica	2,293	Seine et Marne	1,233
Seine	1,939	Meurthe	1,198
Isère	1,914	Côte d'Or	1,157
Seine et Oise	1,761	Meuse	1,127
Var	1,708	Seine Inférieure	1,115
Finistère	1,405	Oise	1,087
Loiret	1,365	Sarthe	1,083
Haute Garonne	1,326	Alpes Maritimes	1,047
Moselle	1,278	Calvados	1,026
Gironde	1,248	Tarn et Garonne	1,009
Marne	1,246	Bouches du Rhone	1,006

TABLE 4.—POPULATION according to Profession and Department.

Departments.	Comparative Distribution according to Class.							
	I. Agriculture.	II, Industry.	III. Commerce.	IV. Professions connected with the three preceeding.	V. Various Professions.	VI. Liberal Professions or Persons living on their own Means.	VII. Persons without Professions.	VIII. Professions unknown.
Ain..	6,714	1,787	231	121	13	883	205	46
Aisne	3,811	4,163	379	293	21	913	165	255
Allier	6,603	2,143	189	175	48	566	122	154
Alpes (Basses) ..	7,550	1,180	270	120	10	710	130	30
Alpes (Hautes) ..	7,945	927	189	47	13	605	136	138
Alpes Maritimes ..	5,759	2,118	402	432	66	1,047	136	40
Ardèche	6,802	2,179	252	110	14	455	147	41
Ardennes	3,669	4,694	364	290	15	988	91	189
Ariège	7,373	1,813	203	80	20	403	72	36
Aube	4,920	3,332	347	294	16	920	123	48
Aude	6,566	2,072	333	222	17	627	108	55
Aveyron	6,778	2,124	162	78	10	612	80	138
Bouches du Rhone ..	2,699	3,915	631	1,464	66	1,006	164	55
Calvados	4,232	3,504	396	253	97	1,026	193	299
Cantal	5,912	1,252	218	256	13	723	122	1,504
Charente	7,121	1,793	270	137	18	542	74	45
Charente Inférieure ..	6,108	1,841	311	357	38	988	69	288
Cher	6,135	2,285	229	276	12	603	104	356
Corrèze	7,906	1,342	196	58	6	321	71	100
Corse	5,032	1,512	339	539	23	2,293	154	108
Côte d'Or	5,336	2,490	366	335	13	1,157	175	128
Côtes du Nord ..	6,939	1,468	321	385	20	470	349	48
Creuse	5,635	3,570	172	36	14	478	40	55
Dordogne	7,404	1,599	195	113	12	573	94	10
Doubs	5,568	2,747	262	168	7	980	87	181
Drôme	6,141	2,178	484	191	25	830	114	37
Eure	4,383	3,554	363	233	33	963	162	309
Eure et Loir	5,715	2,332	413	196	24	997	199	124
Finistère	6,021	1,828	287	146	32	1,405	180	101
Gard	5,066	3,158	451	424	30	640	126	105
Garonne (Haute) ..	5,057	2,418	395	431	55	1,326	209	109
Gers	7,213	1,826	226	44	13	551	77	50
Gironde	4,637	2,640	474	559	168	1,248	141	133
Herault	5,043	3,127	421	363	61	721	152	112
Ile et Vilaine ..	6,592	1,994	256	246	27	650	163	72
Indre	6,814	2,002	223	169	7	623	68	94
Indre et Loire ..	5,873	2,429	360	258	40	879	105	56
Isère	4,120	2,977	607	217	36	1,914	72	57
Jura	6,144	2,342	295	154	10	794	114	147
Landes	7,388	1,650	232	85	10	443	111	81
Loir-et-cher	6,080	2,249	294	159	7	867	192	152
Loire	4,303	3,880	512	175	48	857	130	95
Loire (Haute) ..	6,648	2,255	230	83	10	601	106	67
Loire Inférieure ..	5,752	2,489	346	508	32	715	113	45
Loiret	5,814	2,086	490	238	56	983	165	168
Lot..	7,937	1,128	184	83	31	523	88	31
Lot et Garonne ..	6,655	1,973	281	174	21	686	125	85
Lozère	7,240	1,581	211	138	7	597	153	73
Maine et Loire ..	5,563	2,852	336	201	30	815	162	41

Departments.	Comparative Distribution according to Class.							
	I. Agriculture.	II. Industry.	III. Commerce.	IV. Professions connected with the three preceding.	V. Various Professions.	VI. Liberal Professions or Persons living on their own Means.	VII. Persons without Professions.	VIII. Professions unknown.
Manche	6,592	1,687	265	209	14	958	117	158
Marne	4,263	3,321	553	358	26	1,246	138	95
Marne (Haute) ..	5,118	3,022	316	293	8	957	108	178
Mayenne	5,868	2,810	277	109	14	669	144	109
Meurthe	4,678	3,095	418	264	21	1,198	184	142
Meuse	4,564	3,358	351	229	40	1,127	126	205
Morbihan	6,024	2,328	226	385	14	823	122	78
Moselle	3,764	3,819	392	294	46	1,278	88	319
Nièvre	5,957	2,608	335	213	18	581	195	93
Nord	3,007	5,206	463	289	26	686	157	166
Oise	3,976	3,868	399	321	22	1,087	172	155
Orne	4,566	3,461	321	473	14	936	121	108
Pas de Calais ..	4,875	3,428	366	257	16	808	141	109
Puy de Dôme ..	7,402	1,621	198	73	22	518	108	58
Pyrénées (Basses) ..	6,505	2,186	255	188	37	677	78	74
Pyrénées (Hautes) ..	7,062	1,765	183	104	54	591	133	108
Rhin (Haut)	4,790	3,312	443	277	29	927	144	78
Rhin (Bas)	4,246	4,458	306	158	23	539	83	187
Rhone	2,627	4,723	656	337	105	1,244	250	58
Saône (Haute) ..	6,972	988	167	135	13	1,518	94	113
Saône et Loire ..	6,124	2,413	290	238	17	733	95	90
Sarthe	5,582	2,567	393	160	24	1,083	131	60
Savoie	7,744	1,156	147	96	7	600	154	96
Savoie (Haute) ..	7,443	1,589	186	88	15	526	91	62
Seine	256	5,070	1,121	660	386	1,939	321	247
Seine Inférieure ..	2,817	4,268	824	544	84	1,115	169	179
Seine et Marne ..	5,389	2,317	412	350	34	1,233	189	76
Seine et Oise	4,019	2,857	527	319	54	1,761	163	300
Sèvres (Deux) ..	6,467	2,005	264	147	18	967	81	51
Somme	3,706	4,471	396	203	30	831	185	178
Tarn	6,357	2,470	163	115	9	706	107	73
Tarn et Garonne ..	5,854	1,905	428	275	44	1,009	192	293
Var	4,831	2,502	363	295	49	1,708	136	116
Vendée	6,410	2,166	297	210	15	660	74	168
Vienne	6,123	2,178	323	176	34	860	176	132
Vaucluse	6,186	2,176	451	180	30	729	162	86
Vienne (Haute) ..	6,028	2,626	242	199	15	580	123	187
Vosges	4,921	3,508	353	177	29	766	62	184
Yonne	6,049	2,112	325	260	13	921	196	124
Average ..	5,149	2,879	399	287	52	948	147	139
	10,000							

This Table gives the proportional distribution of the general population. The census papers collected in 1866 enable a classification to be made of the different professions separately.

Thus, the persons following the different professions,

as well as their families, have been divided according to the nature of their calling into four classes :—

1. Employers, masters, and active members of firms.
2. Employés, managers, engineers, clerks, jobmen.
3. Workmen.
4. Servants.

This classification, which has not been made in the case of persons following various professions, who are without professions, or whose professions are unknown, applies to a population of 36,976,085 persons.

The following Table gives the population thus classified :—

Table 5.

	Number of Persons following the different Professions.			Their Families.			Total equalling the Population.			Proportion to 10,000 Inhabitants.		
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Professionals.	Their Families	Total.
Employers ..	5,893,236	1,587,359	7,480,595	5,177,720	9,202,838	14,380,558	11,070,956	10,790,197	21,861,153	2,023	3,889	5,912
Employés ..	818,243	369,779	1,188,022	383,292	671,635	1,054,927	1,201,535	1,041,414	2,242,949	321	285	606
Workmen ..	3,337,480	1,748,582	5,086,062	2,026,523	2,026,523	5,581,691	5,364,003	5,303,750	10,667,753	1,376	1,510	2,886
Servants ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	892,759	1,311,471	2,204,230	..	596	596
	10,048,959	3,705,720	13,754,679	7,587,335	13,429,641	21,017,176	18,529,253	18,446,832	36,976,085	3,720	6,280	10,000
	34,771,855									10,000		

These figures lead to several interesting conclusions.

Firstly, the heads of establishments, masters, or active members of firms, counting their families, in number 21,861,153, form nearly three-fifths of the whole population, the two other fifths being those who receive wages as workmen, persons in employment, and servants.

The industrial classes according to the Table amount to 10,667,753, which corresponds to $\frac{29}{100}$, or less than one-third of the population, they only equal half the number of those who are not paid by wages.

Secondly, persons who exercise directly the various professions, either as masters, employés, or workmen, number 13,754,679, or 37·20 to 100 inhabitants, while those who live on the gains and salaries of these classes, as members of the family or servants, number 23,221,406, and form $\frac{63}{100}$ of the whole population. This last fact can be shown in another way: if the whole population be compared with those who create for themselves personally and directly the means of subsistence, it will be found that each furnishes it at the ratio of 2·69, that is to say, to little less than three persons.

Omitting the servants, in order only to consider the family properly so called, the following returns are obtained, expressing, for each denomination, the average number of individuals composing each family:—

Masters	2·92	Average 2·53
Employés	1·90	
Workmen	1·84	

This is the general conclusion, but it is interesting to observe how it varies according to profession:—

Table 6.

	Number of Persons by Families.			Same Calculation, Servants included.
	Masters.	Employés.	Workmen.	
Agriculture	3·53	1·82	2·40	3·17
Industry	2·98	2·11	1·86	2·32
Commerce	2·73	1·67	..	2·65
Professions connected with the foregoing	3·12	2·59	2·58	2·76
Various professions	2·25	1·81	..	2·16
Liberal professions	1·74	1·72	..	1·91
Persons living on their own means	1·80	1·70	..	2·14
	2·92	1·90	1·84	2·69
	2·53			

These Returns show that that the heads of professions contribute to the support of more persons than the employés and workmen. They also show that the families are most numerous in the agricultural classes.

The industrial classes (workmen and their families) are in the proportion of 28·86 of the population (2,886 to 10,000).

Departments ranged according to the numbers of their industrial classes.

1.	Nord	5,012
2.	Somme	4,756
3.	Haut Rhin	4,558
4.	Pas de Calais	4,349
5.	Hérault	4,282
6.	Oise	4,204
7.	Seine	4,158
8.	Bouches des Rhone	4,113
9.	Pyrénées Orientales	4,051
10.	Loire	4,046
11.	Aisne	4,042
12.	Ardennes	4,006
13.	Cher	3,984
14.	Eure	3,954
15.	Seine et Marne	3,856
16.	Indre	3,841
17.	Aude	3,838
18.	Gard	3,836
19.	Seine Inférieure	3,813
20.	Moselle	3,785
21.	Orne	3,714
22.	Calvados	3,675

23.	Var	3,563
24.	Nièvre..	3,473
25.	Eure et Loir	3,397
26.	Rhone..	3,373
27.	Loir et Cher	3,361
28.	Corse	3,292
29.	Seine et Oise	3,263
30.	Meurthe	3,248
31.	Aube	3,043
32.	Indre et Loire	2,963
33.	Vosges	2,934
34.	Bas Rhin	2,849
35.	Marne..	2,765
36.	Loiret	2,765
37.	Creuse..	2,763
38.	Côte d'Or	2,694
39.	Morbihan	2,656
40.	Haute Garonne	2,642
41.	Vienne	2,641
42.	Loire Inférieure	2,630
43.	Finistère	2,625
44.	Maine et Loire	2,596
45.	Meuse..	2,559
46.	Cantal..	2,517
47.	Haute Vienne	2,511
48.	Gironde	2,457
49.	Tarn	2,457
50.	Vendée	2,409
51.	Saône et Loire	2,405
52.	Sarthe	2,405
53.	Haute Marne	2,375
54.	Gers	2,332
55.	Mayenne	2,318
56.	Deux Sèvres	2,315
57.	Doubs..	2,311
58.	Allier	2,219
59.	Yonne..	2,197
60.	Vaucluse	2,142
61.	Lozère..	2,130
62.	Côtes du Nord	2,085
63.	Haute Loire	1,940
64.	Isère	1,921
65.	Charente Inférieure	1,886
66.	Tarn et Garonne	1,876
67.	Alpes Maritimes	1,833
68.	Ile et Vilaine	1,797
69.	Aveyron	1,765
70.	Ardèche	1,738
71.	Manche	1,730
72.	Drôme	1,705
73.	Puy de Dôme	1,639
74.	Jura	1,579
75.	Basses Pyrénées	1,579
76.	Charente	1,546
77.	Landes	1,528

78.	Ariège..	1,472
79.	Haute Saone	1,401
80.	Lot et Garonne	1,238
81.	Ain	1,184
82.	Dordogne	1,178
83.	Haute Savoie	861
84.	Corrèze	826
85.	Hautes Pyrénées	820
86.	Lot	702
87.	Basses Alpes	699
88.	Savoie	660
89.	Hautes Alpes	368

Among other results this Table shows that the industrial population of the Department du Nord exceeds half its whole population. This proportion declines from the half to the third in the twenty-six following Departments. On the other hand there are seven Departments where the proportion does not reach a tenth.

It should be observed that this classification shows the numerical proportion not only of the workmen, but also of their families. But, as the composition of the families varies considerably, another sequence may be obtained if the workmen actually exercising their profession are alone taken into consideration. Under this condition the Departments at the head of the list are the sixteen following :—

Seine ..	..	2,443
Rhone ..	..	2,035
Haute Rhin ..	..	1,721
Nord ..	..	1,535
Seine Inférieure ..	..	1,515
Somme ..	..	1,510
Loire ..	..	1,386
Bouches du Rhone	..	1,339
Ardennes ..	..	1,301
Oise ..	..	1,300
Calvados ..	..	1,275
Eure ..	..	1,260
Creuse ..	..	1,199
Gard ..	..	1,039
Marne ..	..	998
Aisne ..	..	962

With regard to the proportion of men and women relatively in the different branches of industry the following calculations have been made :—

(Table 9.)—Men to 100 Women.

	Producing Population. Persons directly engaged in Professions.	Unproductive Population. Families of the Preceding.	Total of the Population.
Employers, masters, &c.	371·26	56·26	102·61
Employés	221·27	57·06	115·37
Workmen	190·26	57·00	101·14
Servants..	..	..	68·07
The classes united	271·17	56·50	100·45
Individuals without professions ..	..	..	104·27
Professions unknown	..	..	59·64
Total population	..	..	99·80

It will be seen that, these categories taken together, the proportion of the sexes to each other is nearly equal. The men predominate, in very unequal degrees, among employers, employés, and workmen, and women among the servants.

These differences increase considerably on a separate examination of the producing and non-producing population; in the former, males are to females in the proportion of 2·71 to 1; in the latter, (including those who subsist by the work or the revenues of the former) the females are in the proportion of 2 to 1.

The proportion in regard to the families is nearly the same whatever class is considered; but this is not the case with the producing portion of the population. The preponderance of males is much more marked among employers than among the employés, especially in the industrial classes. The proportion to 100 women is 371 men among the employers, 221 among the employés, and 190 among the work people.

These considerations induce special attention to those actually engaged in trade, who, as masters, workmen, or employés, really work.

Keeping this point in view the general categories of professions and trades give the following results :—

(Table 10.)—Persons actively engaged in Professions or Trades. (Men to 100 Women.)

Professions and Trades.	Employers.	Employés.	Workmen.
Agriculture	523·84	162·02	163·92
Industry	396·73	446·26	190·76
Commerce	255·19	279·53	..
Professions connected with above ..	2,352·00	1,625·75	2,198·05
Various professions	167·91	130·56	..
Liberal professions	499·68	436·60	..
Independent persons	115·18	105·77	..
Active population	371·26	221·27	190·26

According to these returns the professions connected with agriculture, commerce, and industry (navigation, transport, road inspection, banking institutions) employ the greatest number of men. The agricultural classes take the next place, followed by the liberal professions. Among the industrial classes, although still considerable, the proportion is less, and less still in the commercial classes, and in the categories of "various professions" and "independent persons" the proportion tends towards being equalized. With the exception of the "employés" in commerce and industry the excess of males is in every case less considerable in the two classes receiving wages than in those consisting of capitalists and heads of establishments.

The proportional utilization of men and women in the different branches of trade is shown in the following Table:—

(TABLE 11.)—MEN to 100 Women.

Branches of Industry.	Employers.	Employed on the Establishments.	Workmen.
1. Textile fabrics	268·52	423·56	96·09
2. Mines and quarries	1,217·20	1,644·44	976·65
3. Preparation of metals	1,536·42	1,030·95	1,069·09
4. Manufactures of works in metal..	2,137·28	775·79	1,735·00
5. Leather	2,127·61	808·88	1,595·76
6. Wood	1,640·00	492·13	1,298·99
7. Ceramic manufactures.. ..	1,104·59	1,185·14	458·80
8. Chemical products	1,412·14	1,389·86	430·12
9. Building	17,137·44	1,075·37	30,892·45
10. Lighting	1,526·13	3,783·11	1,068·59
11. Furniture	1,565·02	570·77	412·08
12. Dress	119·84	178·34	51·55
13. Food	454·87	336·57	592·96
14. Transport	4,912·03	1,811·95	5,106·42
15. Science, letters, and art ..	1,840·47	680·78	239·62
16. Luxuries and amusements ..	907·90	596·16	183·63
17. Military	750·00	2,489·28	1,901·87
18. Various	220·69	591·77	165·41
Average	396·73	446·26	190·76

Although, according to this return the male among employers and employés nearly obliterates the female in certain branches of industry, and predominates largely in most of the others, there are still some branches in which the female, as mistress or employée, plays proportionally a considerable part, more especially in dress, in textile fabrics, and in alimentary trade, bearing in mind always that it is as workwoman that she takes the important place.

Thus the establishments for dress employ 100 workwomen to 51 workmen, and the textile industries 100 to 96. The provision of luxuries and amusements occupies 184 men to 100 women; a tolerable number of women are found in the industries connected with letters, science and art, porcelain, chemical products, food, and even mines and quarries; on the other hand, men are employed almost exclusively in building and transport. Their numerical superiority is likewise very considerable in the branches relating to military industry, manufactures of works in metal and leather.

The following Table shows the number of persons employed in the different branches of industry:—

Table 12.

I.—Branches of Industry.

	Producing Population.				Non-producing Population: Families of the preceding, including Servants.	Whole Population.
	Employers.	Employés.	Workmen.	Total.		
Textile fabrics	178,117	26,283	825,829	1,030,229	1,008,518	2,038,747
Mines and quarries	25,949	4,553	121,824	152,326	276,885	429,211
Metallurgy	2,291	2,850	49,675	54,816	97,042	151,858
Manufactures in metal	49,198	6,332	145,846	201,376	323,973	525,349
„ leather ...	8,955	1,227	34,000	44,182	77,270	121,452
„ wood	56,637	...	...	...	...	...
Ceramic manufactures	18,599	2,596	71,801	92,996	143,359	236,355
Chemical products	4,733	2,205	21,841	28,779	44,456	73,235
Building	341,991	10,884	480,388	833,263	1,428,670	2,261,933
Lighting	6,098	2,990	13,509	22,597	37,706	60,303
Furniture	15,185	1,469	48,684	65,338	86,282	151,620
Food	410,204	25,758	159,393	595,355	1,109,241	1,704,596
Transport	92,021	1,759	60,759	154,539	272,121	426,660
Science, letters, and art	8,150	5,161	59,549	72,860	69,483	142,343
Luxuries and amusements ...	11,984	2,541	63,084	77,609	67,676	145,285
Military	272	725	22 441	23,438	42,976	66 414
Various	3,239	1,093	9,839	14,171	13,466	27,637
Total	1,661,584	116,068	2,938,153	4,715,805	6,243,286	10,959,091

II.—Professions connected with Agriculture, Industry, and Commerce.

All means of transport	40,415	6,501	119,263	166,179		
Bridges, rivers, canals	...	12,152	13,018	25,170		
Roads and bridges inspection ...	...	27,948	30,679	58,627		
Railways, post, and telegraph ...	...	15,681	59,812	75,493	699,103	1,095,787
Banks and insurance companies .	22,084	25,753	...	47,837		
Other	4,735	15,562	3,081	23,378		
	67,234	103,597	225,853	396,684		
Total	1,728,818	219,665	3,164,006	5,112,489	6,942,389	12,054,878

The following Table gives the proportion in each branch of industry to 10,000 producers :—

(Table 13.)—Proportion to 10,000 Producers.

Branches of Industry.	Employers.	Employés.	Workmen.	Families (Servants included).
Textile fabrics	1,728	253	8,019	1·98
Mines and Quarries	1,701	302	7,997	2·82
Metallurgy	418	520	9,062	2·78
Manufactures in Metal	2,443	313	7,244	2·61
,, Leather	2,026	278	7,686	2·74
,, Wood	5,295	131	4,574	2·70
Ceramic Manufactures	2,000	280	7,720	2·54
Chemical products	1,643	768	7,589	2·55
Building	4,104	131	5,765	2·67
Furniture	2,325	225	7,450	2·33
Lighting	2,699	1,323	5,978	2·67
Dress	3,738	140	6,122	1·84
Food	6,800	433	2,677	2·87
Transport	5,955	110	3,935	2·77
Science, Letters, and Art	1,119	708	8,173	1·95
Luxuries and Amusements	1,544	327	8,129	1·87
Military	115	312	4,573	2·84
Various	2,286	770	6,954	1·94
	3,524	246	6,230	2·32
Transport	2,431	391	7,178	..
Bridges, Rivers, Canals	..	4,827	5,173	..
Highways	..	4,767	5,233	..
Railways, Post, Telegraphs	..	2,077	7,923	..
Banks and Assurance Companies	4,616	5,384	..	..
Other	2,027	6,655	1,318	..
	1,694	2,612	5,694	2·76
United average	3,382	430	6,188	2·36
		10,000		

According to this Table employers predominate in the industries in wood, food, and means of transport and building; employés in lighting, science, letters and art, chemical products, and metallurgy; workmen in military and metallurgical industry, in science, letters and art, luxuries, mines and quarries, manufacture of articles in leather and metal, ceramic manufactures chemical products and textile fabrics. The number of workmen engaged in industries connected with food and means of transport is relatively small.

Attention should be paid to the proportion of families in this Table. In some branches of industry, such as dress, luxuries, science and letters, textile fabrics, the families are small. They are relatively numerous in the

following: mines and quarries, metallurgy, means of transport, leather manufactures, &c.

Paris. — The population of Paris, including the garrison, is, according to the census of 1866, 1,825,274. The city within the limits of the octroi covers 19,280 acres of ground.

The employment of its population is accounted for as follows :—

TABLE 14.

11,936	persons, or	0·69	per cent.	live by gardening, principally the cultivation of vegetables, trees, and flowers.
948,541	,,	54·83	,,	by the industrial professions.
214,349	,,	12·39	,,	by commercial professions.
124,649	,,	7·20	,,	by professions connected with the circulation of goods, financial societies, banks, and public companies.
76,339	,,	4·41	,,	by various professions, among which porters ("concierges") number 45,323 persons.
75,238	,,	4·35	,,	belong to the various liberal professions (law, medicine, education, art, science, and letters).
40,657	,,	2·35	,,	military, gendarmerie, and police.
59,678	,,	3·45	,,	to the public administrations.
9,679	,,	0·56	,,	clergy of all denominations.
168,980	,,	9·77	,,	are independent.
1,730,056		100·00		

These different categories include 1,730,056 persons. It is necessary, in order to complete the population, to add 48,794 persons without any distinct profession, such as children at nurse, prisoners, foundlings, infirm and invalid old men, prostitutes, &c., and 46,424 whose calling cannot be particularized.

The examination of the return shows that the different branches of industry give support to more than half the population (55 per 100), the tenth of the population is independent.

In addition to the professional classification the census divides the population into three classes :—

TABLE 15.

	Number.	Per Cent.
Employers, heads of establishments gaining their own livelihood	657,025	37·98
Receiving wages—		
Every class of employé	206,528	11·95
Workmen	755,007	43·64
Servants	111,496	6·41
	1,730,056	100·00

These figures show the importance of the industrial population in Paris. It exceeds 755,000; to this number should also be added the home workmen, in certain cases counted as employers, a great number of employés, and the greatest part of the floating population; 38 persons in 100 are supported by absolute work, and 62 in 100 by wages in various forms.

The foregoing returns comprise, besides those who are directly engaged, the persons also who are supported at the expense of those who are thus engaged. The two categories may be separated, as follows :—

TABLE 16.

	Employers.	Employés.	Workmen.	Whole Population, Servants included.
Persons actively engaged in the professions named	320,281	126,006	468,337	915,164
Persons supported at their expense ..	336,204	80,522	286,670	814,892
Total	657,025	206,528	755,007	1,730,056
Persons living by the work or position of a single individual	2·10	1·64	1·61	·189

(TABLE 17.)—Population of Paris, showing the Number of Persons in each of the Six Classes of Occupations, Census of 1866.

	Number of Establishments.	Masters and Employers.				Engineers, Directors, Agents, and Employés.				Workmen.				Servants attached to the Person or the House, and dependent on the preceding Categories and their Families.		Total Number of Persons living, Directly or Indirectly, by the Different Professions.		
		Exercising directly the Profession named.		Family of the preceding. Husband or Wife, Children, and Relations living at their expense, and having no other means of existence.		Exercising directly the Profession named.		Their Family.		Exercising directly the Profession named.		Their Family.						
		Males.	Females	Males.	Females	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Total.
I. Agriculture*	976	1,456	144	963	1,73	1,814	156	450	1,006	1,653	458	513	1,181	214	195	7,063	4,873	11,936
II. Industry†	57,028	54,592	11,477	30,063	72,290	29,160	5,686	5,561	14,177	281,569	160,801	80,180	179,892	5,406	17,845	486,383	462,168	948,551
III. Commerce‡	40,659	41,711	2 798	23,235	51,416	40,109	8,282	6,996	17,121	...	...	...	...	2,913	9,768	114,964	99,385	214,349
IV. Various professions connected with agriculture, industry, and commerce§ .	...	9,370	226	3,825	9,124	22,265	917	6,709	17,192	22,922	994	7,431	14,743	1,578	4,593	74,100	50,549	124,649
V. Other professions‖	...	18,757	14,853	9,601	23,198	2,855	759	611	1,566	...	...	...	...	1,834	2,275	33,688	42,651	76,339
VI. Liberal professions¶ ...	...	112,430	43,098	29,542	81,214	11,854	2,119	2,497	6,608	...	...	...	...	17,596	47 279	173,919	180,313	354,232
	...	238.225	82,596	97,229	238,975	108,057	17,919	22.857	57,665	306,084	162,253	88,124	198,546	29 541	81,955	890,117	839,939	1,730,056
Persons not classed ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	24,592	24,202	48,794
Professions unknown ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	15,252	31,172	46,424
Total equalling the population	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	929,961	894,313	1,825,274

* Landed proprietors, living on their property; agents, farmers, labourers, wood-cutters, charcoal-burners; market, kitchen, and flower-gardeners, &c.

† Given in detail.

‡ All persons engaged in selling articles for building, furniture, dress, food, heating and lighting, science, letters and art, jewellery, &c.

§ All persons engaged in navigation, transport, means of communication, railways, posts and telegraphs, banks, Financial and Assurance Companies, brokerage, money-changing, selling stamped paper, &c.

‖ Porters, lodging-house keepers, bathmen, undertakers, nurses, sextons, grave-diggers, acrobats, mountebanks, &c.

¶ Members of the legal profession and medical profession, teachers; persons engaged in science, letters and art; army, navy and police; Government and Public Administration ergy, independent persons, &c.

Table 18.

Class 2.—Industry.	Number of Establishments.	Masters and Employers.				Engineers, Directors, Agents, and Employés.				Workmen.				Servants attached to the Person, or the House, and dependent on the preceding Categories, and their Families.		Total Number of Persons living, Directly or Indirectly, by the Different Professions.		
		Exercising directly the Profession named.		Family of the preceding. Husband or Wife, Children, and Relations, living at their expense, and having no other means of subsistence.		Exercising directly the Profession named.		Their Family.		Exercising directly the Profession named.		Their Family.						
1. *Textile Fabrics.*		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Total.
The manufacture of materials in—																		
A. Cotton (printed or otherwise) ...	280	280	59	144	402	374	77	55	124	954	762	386	705	42	160	2,235	2,249	4,584
B. Wool	225	230	25	133	267	438	73	89	214	768	698	321	646	49	187	2,028	2,110	4,138
C. Hemp and flax	22	33	6	14	40	122	22	21	58	337	173	158	281	6	20	691	600	1,291
D. Silk	46	43	12	27	67	173	25	30	99	205	582	100	144	9	36	587	965	1,552
E. Hair, horsehair, matting ..	33	36	6	20	54	74	8	12	38	184	117	60	114	2	15	388	352	740
F. Mixed tissues, gold and silver lace ("passementerie") ...	551	542	117	278	724	540	126	83	268	2,516	4,985	1,137	2,137	51	245	5,147	8,602	13,749
G. Lace, tulles, blonde	156	140	46	67	165	209	73	44	160	112	1,210	116	216	18	98	706	1,968	2,674
H. Other tissues and stuffs ...	70	74	13	44	91	167	16	28	108	203	141	80	160	10	47	606	576	1,182
I. Cord	102	13	2	53	113	50	3	7	17	459	27	165	363	4	16	844	1,541	1,385
J. Undefined	34	48	10	20	39	124	13	27	53	205	98	44	107	...	19	468	339	807
Total	1,519	1,532	296	800	1,962	2,271	436	396	1,139	5,943	8,793	2,567	4,933	191	843	13,700	18,402	32,102
2. *Mines and Quarries, working.*																		
A. Mines and soil producing metals (metal)	3	3	...	1	3	34	...	19	33	8	...	1	3	3	9	69	48	117
B. Mines and coal-pits (anthracite, lignite, &c.)	2	2	...	...	1	13	3	9	14	21	2	3	6	1	7	49	33	82
C. Mineral salt	1	1	...	...	1	2	...	1	2	...	...	...	...	...	...	4	3	7
D. Marine salt	1	1	...	...	1	3	...	...	2	...	...	...	...	1	...	5	3	8
E. Quarries	54	68	3	40	88	43	...	25	28	1,584	37	533	1,443	26	28	2,319	1,627	3,946
F. Turf-pits	...	...	...	...	...	8	...	4	8	2	1	4	1	...	...	18	10	28
G. Undefined	3	4	...	...	1	18	...	6	17	57	...	31	41	...	4	116	63	179
Total	64	79	3	41	95	101	3	64	104	1,672	40	572	1,494	31	48	2,580	1,787	4,367

3. *Manufacture of Metal.*	Number of Establishments.	Masters and Employers. Exercising directly the Profession named. Males.	Masters and Employers. Exercising directly the Profession named. Females.	Masters and Employers. Family of the preceding. Husband or Wife, Children, and Relations, living at their expense, and having no other means of subsistence. Males.	Masters and Employers. Family of the preceding. Husband or Wife, Children, and Relations, living at their expense, and having no other means of subsistence. Females.	Engineers, Directors, Agents, and Employés. Exercising directly the Profession nemed. Males.	Engineers, Directors, Agents, and Employés. Exercising directly the Profession nemed. Females.	Engineers, Directors, Agents, and Employés. Their Family. Males.	Engineers, Directors, Agents, and Employés. Their Family. Females.	Workmen. Exercising directly the Profession named. Males.	Workmen. Exercising directly the Profession named. Females.	Workmen. Their Family. Males.	Workmen. Their Family. Females.	Servants attached to the Person, or the House, and dependent on the preceding Categories, and their Families. Males.	Servants attached to the Person, or the House, and dependent on the preceding Categories, and their Families. Females.	Total Number of Persons living, Directly or Indirectly, by the Different Professions. Males.	Total Number of Persons living, Directly or Indirectly, by the Different Professions. Females.	Total Number of Persons living, Directly or Indirectly, by the Different Professions. Total.
Manufacture of—																		
A. Cast iron, steel	87	98	3	73	142	77	16	28	48	559	10	187	372	24	58	1,046	649	1,695
B. Copper	48	56	...	40	81	46	12	5	34	507	7	160	301	6	27	831	462	1,283
C. Other metals (lead, zinc, tin, &c.)	77	84	...	43	129	34	12	21	37	449	20	132	303	23	58	786	559	1,345
Total	212	238	3	156	352	157	40	55	119	1,515	37	479	976	53	143	2,653	1,670	4,323
4. Manufacture of Works in Metal.																		
A Machinery of every description; locomotives, stationary engines, rails, buffers, plain and wrought iron for building, axle-trees, wheel-tires, apparatus for heating and ventilation, agricultural implements, cast architectural pieces in iron or zinc, nails, screws, files, needles and pins, telegraphic wire, &c.	806	940	16	611	1,364	941	20	298	724	13,705	116	3,704	9,591	97	382	20,296	12,213	32,509
B. Weapons (sword, sabre, bayonet, &c.)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
C. Fire-arms, cannon-foundries, percussion-cap manufactories, &c. .	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
D. Iron bedsteads	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
E. Mathematical, surgical, and musical (brass) instruments	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
F. Type-founders	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
G. Founders, polishers, ironmongers, coppersmiths, tinsmiths, turners in metal	1,064	1,158	23	663	1,550	316	20	81	205	15,846	114	3,974	9,847	58	205	20,096	11,964	32,060
H. Cutlery	208	209	15	137	267	45	13	13	28	597	15	164	344	7	37	1,172	719	1,891
I. Hardware	129	149	6	93	182	141	5	13	55	428	17	163	334	11	58	998	657	1,655

	Number of Establishments.	Masters and Employers.				Engineers, Directors, Agents, and Employés.				Workmen.				Servants attached to the Person, or the House, and dependent on the preceding Categories, and their Families.		Total Number of Persons living, Directly or Indirectly, by the Different Professions.		
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4. *Manufacture of Works in Metal* (continued).		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females	Males.	Females	Total.
J. Jewellers, goldsmiths, workers in bronze, watchmakers, gold-beaters, engravers in metal ..	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
K. The Mint (the persons in the employ of the Government are classed under "Liberal Professions"	1	...	...	...	...	3	...	1	5	72	3	26	65	...	...	102	73	175
L. Undefined	53	53	...	33	74	29	...	...	9	503	34	206	425	3	13	827	555	1,382
Total	2,261	2,509	60	1,537	3,437	1,475	58	406	1,026	29,151	299	8,237	20,606	176	695	43,491	26,181	69,672
5. *Leather.*																		
A. Tanners, curriers, chamois-curriers, parchment-makers, morocco-makers, leather case-makers ...	581	642	25	417	957	229	24	73	166	6,004	396	1,704	4,132	46	231	9,115	5,931	15,046
B. Breeches makers, glovers, truss-makers	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
C. Furriers	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
D. Bootmakers	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
E. Saddle and harness-makers ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
F. Binders	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
G Workers in polished leather ...	49	50	1	29	80	35	5	4	18	178	44	69	167	1	19	366	334	700
H. Undefined	17	16	1	12	16	37	1	5	25	30	5	5	21	2	3	107	72	179
Total	647	708	27	458	1,053	301	30	82	209	6,212	445	1,778	4,320	49	253	9,588	6,337	15,925
6. *Wood.*																		
A. Ship and boat-builders	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
B. Turners	201	224	5	145	328	22	...	12	10	2,134	20	681	1,487	4	26	3,352	1,826	5,178
C. Cabinet-makers	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
D. Carpenters and joiners	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

	Number of Establishments.	Masters and Employers.				Engineers, Directors, Agents, and Employés.				Workmen.				Servants attached to the Person, or the House, and dependent on the preceding Categories, and their Families.		Total Number of Persons living, Directly or Indirectly, by the Different Professions.		
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6. *Wood*—(continued).		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males	Females.	Males.	Female.	Males.	Females.	Total.
B. Coopers, sieve-makers, basket-makers, packing-case and box-makers	976	1,031	36	636	1,435	96	10	14	30	5,240	63	1,298	3,220	38	135	8,353	4,929	13,282
F. Fancy box-makers	258	262	9	135	340	82	13	9	24	1,051	66	274	737	4	57	1,817	1,246	3,063
G. Wooden shoemakers	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
H. Undefined	84	91	5	37	107	28	3	8	20	197	76	71	142	3	19	435	372	807
Total	1,519	1,608	55	953	2,210	228	26	43	84	8,802	225	2,274	5,536	49	237	13,957	8,373	22,380
7. *Ceramic Manufactures.*																		
A. Manufactures of glass and crystal	107	109	5	83	160	96	2	17	64	1,111	53	363	833	9	55	1,788	1,172	2,960
B. Manufacture of mirrors	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
C. Manufacture of porcelain, faience, and pipes	135	138	6	88	187	99	4	16	63	723	63	190	553	7	43	1,261	919	2,180
D. Potters, brick, and tile-makers, sewage-pipe and conduit-makers	153	165	9	98	232	40	4	10	21	1,919	23	620	1,363	24	47	2,876	1,699	4,575
E. Undefined	10	12	1	12	22	10	13	1	4	166	7	17	38	27	10	245	95	340
otal	405	424	21	281	601	245	23	44	152	3,919	146	1,119	2,787	67	155	6,170	3,885	10,055
emical Products.																		
A. Manufacture of chemical products used in art and medicine (acids, soda, alum, potash, &c.)	210	224	6	112	314	238	5	50	145	423	59	126	312	41	126	1,214	967	2,181
B. Manufacture of animal black, varnish, and blacking, paste, reds, colours, carriage-grease, train-oil, &c.	295	305	13	160	409	139	4	22	95	402	40	128	314	26	102	1,182	977	2,159
C. Tallow-melters	16	35	...	28	52	7	...	3	6	155	...	64	147	5	14	297	219	516
D. Manufacture of artificial manure .	6	16	...	6	15	15	1	5	9	18	2	6	15	...	1	66	43	109
E. Salt refiners	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

8. *Chemical Products* (continued).	Number of Establishments.	Masters and Employers.				Engineers, Directors, Agents, and Employés.				Workmen.				Servants attached to the Person, or the House, and dependent on the preceding Categories, and their Families.		Total Number of Persons living, Directly or Indirectly, by the Different Professions.		
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		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Total.
F. Sugar refiners	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
G. Manufacture of artificial mineral waters	57	61	3	37	80	50	3	7	24	66	9	22	49	5	16	248	184	432
H. Ditto, of soap	8	8	1	4	9	18	...	4	16	117	39	47	110	3	5	201	180	381
I. Ditto, of starch	11	11	...	8	18	5	...	2	8	26	10	6	16	...	4	58	56	114
J. Ditto, of oil-cloth	32	35	7	23	46	28	4	4	19	138	10	41	93	2	19	271	198	469
K. Preparation of caoutchouc and gutta percha	66	68	2	48	88	27	10	11	20	152	84	73	138	4	28	383	370	753
L. Refiners of bitumen, asphalte, sulphur, resins, tar	8	9	1	3	8	24	...	4	17	229	3	88	162	1	5	358	196	554
M. Undefined	22	32	2	21	36	8	3	4	3	198	120	66	168	...	6	329	338	667
Total	731	804	35	450	1,075	559	30	116	362	1,924	376	667	1,524	87	326	4,607	3,728	8,335
9. *Building*.																		
A. Architects	1,069	1,803	...	639	1,812	1,237	14	193	534	41	3	3	23	159	811	4,075	3,197	7,272
B. Contractors	394	475	1	241	634	513	3	100	281	1,002	1	209	479	71	259	2,611	1,658	4,269
C. Lime-kilns	17	24	...	14	37	26	1	12	20	162	...	62	168	6	13	306	239	545
D. Tiles and bricks	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
E. Wall-papers	122	125	5	68	171	179	8	48	121	1,828	75	543	1,220	13	49	2,804	1,649	4,453
F. Sawyers ("scieurs de bois") ...	18	18	1	10	16	11	...	3	7	457	8	178	338	1	5	678	375	1,053
G. Locksmiths	975	1,060	2	553	1,373	220	7	37	115	8,835	...	2,355	5,384	48	196	13,108	7,077	20,185
H. Carpenters and joiners	1,381	1,475	14	904	1,961	134	5	45	111	17,170	46	4,978	11,963	53	263	24,759	14,363	39,122
I. Masons, stone-cutters, and slaters.	647	828	2	472	1,108	255	1	78	150	33,034	8	5,811	13,694	42	225	40,520	15,189	55,707
J. Sawyers ("scieurs de long") ...	43	45	...	10	48	14	...	2	7	1,382	...	342	854	4	17	1,799	926	2,725
K. Painters, glaziers, plasterers, decorators, rough-casters, gilders ...	1,085	1,179	15	669	1,576	136	3	41	85	11,886	89	2,749	6,893	33	268	16,693	8,929	25,622
L. Plumbers; ceiling, flooring, and baluster-makers	237	261	...	160	332	37	1	18	25	2,016	1	517	1,314	15	76	3,024	1,749	4,773
M. Chimney-makers, stove-makers, chimney-sweeps	362	382	3	223	505	48	2	3	43	2,637	7	508	1,228	6	69	3,807	1,859	5,664
N. Marble and stone-cutters ...	301	303	7	169	425	66	1	21	36	2,143	99	652	1,597	6	57	3,360	2,222	5,582

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9. *Building*—(continued).		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Total.
O. Ornamental decorators and sculptors	218	244	...	118	296	34	...	11	26	2,428	13	645	1,649	6	44	3,486	2,028	5,514
P. Undefined	68	114	9	43	116	37	7	35	80	3,304	121	694	1,856	14	29	4,241	2,218	6,459
Total	6,937	8,336	59	4,293	10,410	2,947	53	647	1,641	88,325	471	20,246	48,660	477	2,381	125,271	63,675	188,946
10. *Lighting.*																		
A. Manufacture of burning gas	14	74	...	28	85	1,176	1	418	1,058	956	12	382	896	15	69	3,049	2,121	5,170
B. Piping, conduits, and apparatus for gas-lighting	139	148	1	74	201	159	2	40	77	442	5	150	317	5	50	1,018	653	1,671
C. Lamp-makers	157	161	7	76	217	63	2	10	31	530	7	110	329	4	34	954	627	1,581
D. Manufacture of wax and tallow candles	33	35	1	12	51	62	3	17	32	160	53	68	159	4	32	358	331	689
E. Lamp-oil mills and refineries	17	20	...	16	28	39	1	12	32	61	1	33	45	2	24	183	131	314
F. Undefined	7	7	1	3	12	48	3	9	19	31	5	6	29	2	4	106	73	179
Total	367	445	10	209	594	1,547	12	506	1,247	2,180	83	749	1,775	32	213	5,668	3,936	9,604
11. *Furniture.*																		
A. Cabinet-making, furniture and chairs, inlaid work	1,988	2,074	57	1,397	2,736	236	11	66	132	12,090	782	4,083	8,738	71	224	20,017	12,680	32,697
B. Carpets	27	31	2	13	50	49	4	16	39	101	40	49	98	8	22	267	255	522
C. Upholsterers	595	638	36	311	810	163	36	29	80	2,702	1,123	550	1,255	36	273	4,429	3,613	8,041
D. Iron-bedsteads and bedding	112	112	22	88	153	116	10	31	49	483	758	174	377	3	44	1,007	1,413	2,420
E. Looking-glass makers	78	83	3	38	110	23	5	7	15	434	39	113	292	7	34	705	498	1,203
F. Undefined	61	57	7	30	84	70	3	9	32	210	117	62	106	3	16	441	365	806
Total	2,861	2,995	127	1,877	3,943	657	69	158	347	16,020	2,859	5,031	10,866	128	613	26,866	18,824	45,690

12. *Dress.*	Number of Establishments.	Masters and Employers.				Engineers, Directors, Agents, and Employés.				Workmen.				Servants attached to the Person, or the House, and dependent on the preceding Categories, and their Families.		Total Number of Persons living, Directly or Indirectly, by the Different Professions.		
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		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Total.
A. Hatters and cap-makers	715	722	60	368	898	439	68	64	194	3,243	3,138	764	1,780	75	229	5,615	6,367	11,982
B. Straw hat-makers	154	136	37	60	165	87	24	21	49	208	261	58	104	10	53	580	693	1,273
C. Tailors	2,530	2,816	126	1,325	3,424	766	97	103	317	13,808	4,619	3,517	8,241	161	659	22,496	17,473	39,969
D. Seamstresses	1,974	155	2,288	608	847	260	207	37	101	[illegible]	51,169	3,835	4,710	186	470	5,104	59,792	64,896
E. Milliners	1,483	160	1,159	293	487	143	292	14	59	[illegible]	6,453	362	641	106	422	1,050	9,493	10,543
F. Manufacture of embroidery for women	134	116	72	65	167	282	53	60	177	149	2,353	231	358	19	105	932	3,285	4,207
G. Linen and shirt-making	1,660	880	1,254	614	1,407	882	658	149	392	328	20,579	1,675	2,592	157	714	4,635	27,596	32,231
H. Gaiter-makers	29	23	9	17	33	36	2	7	14	88	110	36	60	2	6	209	243	443
I. Embroiderers in silver and gold, chasubles, stoles, and other religious vestments	106	97	17	61	116	130	32	30	83	113	463	64	96	9	71	504	878	1,382
J. Artificial flowers and feathers ...	863	684	361	363	974	399	171	70	164	922	7,432	625	1,588	55	360	3,118	10,850	13,968
K. Buttons in metal, ivory, and porcelain	162	166	10	98	222	168	18	30	79	1,094	801	372	769	11	78	1,939	1,977	3,916
L. Bleaching	2,591	876	2,345	954	1,868	121	30	22	50	827	20,986	2,417	3,208	111	165	5,328	28,652	33,980
M. Dyeing	502	455	97	236	646	88	101	25	50	1,480	484	502	1,128	29	121	2,815	2,627	5,442
N. Dressers, calenderers, and gloss removers	90	93	7	51	133	52	9	15	39	525	87	145	327	11	47	892	649	1,541
O. Furriers	120	129	13	82	179	92	29	13	45	384	250	107	233	17	65	824	814	1,638
P. Breeches-makers, glovers, truss-makers	425	414	87	178	524	133	84	16	61	1,398	2,479	536	1,032	26	151	2,701	4,418	7,119
Q. Boot and shoemakers	2,768	2,958	154	1,483	3,758	498	151	169	235	17,560	6,284	5,063	11,473	99	432	27,830	22,487	50,317
R. Wooden shoemakers	75	80	1	32	97	19	1	4	8	269	16	90	166	1	8	495	297	792
S. Stocking-makers	40	42	4	23	37	17	2	9	13	169	138	55	149	2	4	317	347	664
T. Cane and umbrella-makers ...	348	342	42	157	416	90	41	13	61	818	529	238	445	17	75	1,675	1,609	3,284
U. Comb, brush, and dressing-case makers	387	377	35	188	485	145	26	16	55	1,239	525	309	748	14	85	2,288	1,959	4,247
V. Barbers, hairdressers, wig-makers	1,641	1,703	71	709	1,951	598	47	34	86	1,599	126	151	410	47	145	4,841	2,836	7,677
X Perfumery	193	180	62	116	213	148	47	19	70	362	392	123	249	19	108	967	1,141	2,108
Y. Undefined	324	253	143	157	331	86	39	23	48	305	951	190	328	15	79	1,029	1,919	2,948
Total	18,944	13,807	8,454	8,178	19,378	5,679	2,229	936	2,440	46,943	180,625	21,405	40,635	1,199	4,652	98,174	208,393	306,567

13. *Food.*	Number of Establishments.	Masters and Employers. Exercising directly the Profession named. Males.	Females.	Family of the preceding. Husband or Wife, Children, and Relations, living at their expense, and having no other means of subsistence. Males.	Females.	Engineers, Directors, Agents, and Employés. Exercising directly the Profession named. Males.	Females.	Their Family. Males.	Females.	Workmen. Exercising directly the Profession named. Males.	Females.	Their Family. Males.	Females.	Servants attached to the Person, or the House, and dependent on the preceding Categories, and their Families. Males.	Females.	Total Number of Persons living, Directly or Indirectly, by the Different Professions. Males.	Females.	Total.
A. Millers	6	8	...	4	8	25	...	20	22	45	1	4	17	1	5	107	53	160
B. Market gardeners	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
C. Salt refiners (not to be confounded with the working of salt mines)	...	...	...	...	...	7	2	1	9	15	...	12	24	...	1	35	36	71
D. Sugar refiners	81	38	7	14	40	141	4	43	121	1,037	2	387	943	24	53	1,684	1,170	2,854
E. Distilleries	427	465	39	224	562	350	35	37	129	530	38	84	189	37	180	1,727	1,172	2,899
F. Bakers	1,398	1,338	163	756	1,917	198	251	30	109	3,946	258	1,007	2,276	95	619	7,370	5,623	12,993
G. Pastrycooks	637	621	81	321	762	172	119	10	29	1,613	78	118	351	49	166	2,934	1,616	4,550
H. Butchers, pork butchers, tripe sellers	2,510	2,460	278	1,364	3,425	1,124	337	97	278	4,044	140	537	1,262	192	765	9,818	6,485	16,303
I. Potted-meat makers	11	13	...	11	18	33	...	6	16	28	11	6	13	1	11	98	69	167
J. Preserved vegetables, &c.	35	33	3	15	44	39	3	6	15	16	17	5	16	11	15	125	113	238
K. Preserved meat and salt-fish	12	9	2	2	10	20	1	...	...	6	...	...	6	2	9	39	28	67
L. Restaurants, tables d'hôtes, inns and taverns, boarding-houses, where food is provided	2,985	2,722	572	1,574	3,441	1,926	528	154	478	1,990	587	258	647	1,189	1,277	9,613	7,500	17,113
M. Dairymen	267	277	23	226	454	47	4	10	20	101	13	7	45	142	86	810	645	1,455
N. Cafés	975	868	161	384	1,051	1,291	122	82	213	450	10	44	121	183	265	3,302	1,943	5,245
O. Roasters	144	125	36	81	168	17	3	...	15	40	6	2	10	12	27	277	265	542
P. Preserve-makers	205	200	29	101	251	127	190	9	34	545	133	89	205	30	92	1,101	937	2,038
Q. Ices, chocolate, and creams	2,171	1,912	462	982	2,455	1,508	242	136	289	1,417	210	147	382	306	581	6,438	4,621	11,059
R. Brewers	151	158	5	118	240	102	3	15	36	555	5	129	315	26	53	1,103	657	1,760
S. Manufacture of bottles and glasses	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
T. Vinegar and mustard-makers, oilmen	62	69	1	46	101	53	1	9	41	43	1	13	31	4	26	237	202	439
U. Corkmakers	30	29	3	24	43	14	...	6	12	104	15	45	55	2	6	224	134	358
V. Fishermen	14	28	...	10	21	...	...	...	...	2	...	...	2	...	...	40	23	63
X. Cheesemongers	2	3	...	2	5	1	...	...	...	1	...	1	1	...	...	8	7	15
Y. Employés in slaughter-houses	...	18	2	12	23	45	...	10	34	45	18	18	32	...	1	148	110	258
Z. Water-carriers	222	483	1	107	287	33	2	13	11	165	8	45	48	2	4	848	361	1,209
ZZ. Undefined	33	44	41	22	76	37	3	16	22	102	38	22	42	4	12	247	234	481
Total	12,327	11,951	1,909	6,200	15,405	7,310	1,880	710	1,934	16,840	1,589	3,010	7,033	2,312	4,254	48,333	34,004	3,337

	Number of Establishments.	Masters and Employers.				Engineers, Directors, Agents, and Employés.				Workmen.				Servants attached to the Person, or the House, and dependent on the preceding Categories, and their Families.		Total Number of Persons living, Directly or Indirectly, by the Different Professions.		
		Exercising directly the Profession named.		Family of the preceding. Husband or Wife, Children, and Relations, living at their expense, and having no other means of subsistence.		Exercising directly the Profession named.		Their Family.		Exercising directly the Profession named.		Their Family.						
14. *Transport.*		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Total.
A, Boat and ship-builders for commerce, coasting and river navigation	42	42	1	35	64	6	...	1	11	328	9	160	358	1	2	573	445	1,018
B. Freighters and shipowners	8	22	...	5	26	8	...	1	5	4	...	1	...	14	29	55	60	115
C. Carriage-makers, wheelwrights, saddle and harness-makers, farriers	992	1,110	12	687	1,489	211	6	42	135	7,986	245	2,046	5,070	62	280	12,144	7,237	19,381
D. Railway-carriage and truck-makers	7	7	...	5	10	41	...	8	20	115	...	42	91	...	1	218	122	340
Total	1,049	1,181	13	732	1,589	266	6	52	171	8,433	254	2,249	5,519	77	312	12,990	7,864	20,854
15. *Science, Letters, and Art.*																		
A. Paper-makers	132	142	5	84	211	152	15	36	92	822	380	209	507	12	78	1,457	1,288	2,745
B. Steel-pens, pencils, and other writing-table furniture ...	42	41	4	31	79	65	7	11	31	171	91	55	83	1	11	375	306	681
C. Printing, lithography, copper-plate engraving, and stereotyping	670	725	20	388	972	778	40	242	620	8,707	779	2,208	5,487	56	298	13,096	8,216	21,312
D. Type-founders	25	28	...	4	32	17	...	3	17	403	25	95	255	1	12	551	341	892
E. Editors of books and music ...	256	262	12	147	292	333	19	60	185	67	13	10	20	26	163	905	704	1,609
F. Bookbinders	607	605	40	331	858	113	20	41	52	2,688	2,554	726	1,442	29	126	4,533	5,092	9,625
G. Newspapers and reviews (those only who receive wages; the editors come under the "Liberal Professions")	54	122	18	43	106	406	72	106	291	157	78	25	81	4	42	863	688	1,551
H. Theatres and concerts (those only who receive wages; actors and singers are classed under the "Liberal Professions")	37	74	11	22	61	329	184	82	230	162	73	31	102	10	50	710	711	1,421
Taxidermists	38	61	...	28	66	20	...	2	9	50	...	12	26	2	16	175	117	292

15. *Science Letters, and Art*— (continued).	Number of Establishments.	Masters and Employers.				Engineers, Directors, Agents, and Employés.				Workmen.				Servants attached to the Person, or the House, and dependent on the preceding Categories, and their Families.		Total Number of Persons living, Directly or Indirectly, by the Different Professions.		
		Exercising directly the Profession named.		Family of the preceding, Husband or Wife, Children, and Relations, living at their expense, and having no other means of subsistence.		Exercising directly the Profession named.		Their Family.		Exercising directly the Profession named.		Their Family.						
		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Fema s.	Males.	Females.	Total.
J. Manufacture of objects connected with physics and chemistry, surgical and mathematical instruments	371	391	10	192	551	114	7	30	64	1,638	70	321	880	16	113	2,702	1,695	4,397
K. Musical instrument makers ...	341	372	14	195	482	341	56	70	138	1,431	93	416	954	26	121	2,851	1,858	4,709
L. Painting (canvas, brushes, easels, frames)	115	123	5	47	150	27	1	3	13	199	31	57	117	7	16	463	333	796
M. Undefined	61	68	4	38	69	66	2	23	27	170	59	39	69	5	20	409	250	659
Total	2,749	3,014	143	1,542	3,929	2,761	423	709	1,769	16,665	4,246	4,204	10,023	195	1,066	29,090	21,599	50,689
16. *Luxuries and Amusements.*																		
A. Jewellers, goldsmiths, lapidaries, enamellers, clockmakers, gold-beaters, gilders on wood and metal, bronze-workers, metal-chasers	3,171	3,341	149	1,645	4,435	1,299	161	239	614	21,339	5,666	4,065	10,123	188	1,179	32,116	22,327	54,443
B. Manufacture of arms used in sport	55	57	...	42	89	30	...	1	16	390	36	86	250	10	22	616	413	1,029
C. Artificers	7	8	...	4	18	22	1	6	11	143	34	40	65	...	5	223	134	357
D. Instruments and equipments used in fishing and shooting	43	43	1	19	60	39	4	8	29	70	24	16	29	2	13	197	160	357
E. Works of art of every description .	107	115	6	44	128	75	24	17	34	430	261	127	276	2	26	810	755	1,565
F. Toys, playing-cards, and games ...	356	364	45	161	442	141	14	30	57	566	256	153	325	10	66	1,425	1,205	2,630
G. Agents and workmen in the preparation of tobacco	1	1	...	1	2	9	...	2	8	537	1,443	177	318	...	...	727	1,771	2,498
H. Undefined	73	78	16	31	95	56	5	7	22	189	68	33	108	10	20	404	334	738
Total.	3,813	4,007	217	1,945	5,269	1,671	209	310	791	23,664	7,788	4,697	11,494	222	1,331	36,518	27,099	63,617

	Number of Establishments.	Masters and Employers.				Engineers, Directors, Agents, and Employés.				Workmen.				Servants attached to the Person, or the House, and dependent on the preceding Categories, and their Families.		Total Number of Persons living, Directly or Indirectly, by the Different Professions.		
		Exercising directly the Profession named.		Family of the preceding. Husband or Wife, Children, and Relations, living at their expense, and having no other means of subsistence.		Exercising directly the Profession named.		Their Family.		Exercising directly the Profession named.		Their Family.						
17. *Military.*		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Total.
A. Weapons (swords, bayonets, &c. "armes blanches")	8	8	...	2	9	1	...	...	...	15	3	4	5	...	7	30	24	54
B. Fire-arms for the army, percussion-caps	14	15	...	7	19	22	5	4	14	101	40	44	73	2	11	195	162	357
C. Cannon foundries	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
D. Ships of war (construction of, and machinery for)	...	...	...	...	...	8	...	...	3	4	...	...	...	1	2	13	5	18
E. Manufacture of military outfits and equipments	56	62	3	30	90	92	9	18	52	265	291	82	99	7	23	556	567	1,123
F. Undefined	40	39	2	19	43	68	7	13	37	109	19	16	63	1	26	265	197	462
Total	118	124	5	58	161	191	21	35	106	494	353	146	240	11	69	1,059	955	2,014
18. *Various Industries not comprised in the above Categories.*																		
The principal ones	505	739	60	351	827	774	138	268	534	2,807	2,172	679	1,471	50	254	5,668	5,456	11,124

Section II.—Laws affecting Labour, and Relations between Employers and Employed.

Law of March 22, 1841, regulating the Employment of Children in Manufactories.

Article 1. Children shall not be employed except on the conditions determined by the present law:—1. In manufactories, factories, and workshops employing engines or fires constantly going, and in their dependencies; 2, in all manufactories employing more than 20 workmen together in the workshop.

Article 2. Children, in order to be admitted, must be at least 8 years of age. From 8 to 12 years of age they cannot be employed in active work during more than 8 hours in 24 divided by a rest. From 12 to 16 years of age they cannot be employed in active work for more than 12 hours in 24 divided by rests. This work may not take place except between 5 in the morning and 9 at night. The age of the children shall be established by a certificate delivered gratis on unstamped paper by the "Officier de l'Etat Civil."*

Article 3. All work between 9 in the evening and 5 in the morning is considered as night-work. All night-work is forbidden for children under 13 years of age. If the stoppage of an engine (hydraulic), or urgent repairs require it, children above 13 may work at night, counting 2 hours as 3, between 9 at night and 5 in the morning. Night-work of children above 13 years, computed in this manner, shall be allowed, if it be acknowledged as indispensable in works where fires are always kept up and cannot be dispensed with during 24 hours.

Article 4. Children under 16 cannot be employed on Sundays and holidays† recognized by law.

Article 5. No child under 12 years of age shall be admitted unless its parents or guardians certify that it goes to one of the public or private schools existing in the neighbourhood. Every child admitted shall, until 12 years of age, go to school. Children over 12 years of age shall be exempt from going to school if a certificate,

* Officer charged with the Registration of Births, Deaths, and Marriages, &c.

† Ascension, Assumption, All Saints, Christmas.

given by the mayor of their district, prove that they have received primary elementary instruction.

Article 6. The mayors are bound to deliver to the father, mother, or guardian, a book inscribed with the age, surname, christian names, place of birth, and domicile of the child, and the period during which it has received primary instruction. The chiefs of establishments shall inscribe:—1, on the book of each child the date of its admission to the establishment, and of its departure; 2, on a special register, all the particulars mentioned in this article.

Article 7. Regulations made by the Public Administration may:—1, extend to manufactories, factories, and workshops, other than those mentioned in Article 1, the application of the rules of the present law; 2, raise the minimum of age and reduce the length of work fixed by Articles 2 and 3 in regard to works in which the labour of children may exceed their strength and be dangerous to their health; 3, decide on factories where, on account of danger or unhealthiness, children under 16 shall not be employed; 4, forbid children in workshops to which they have been admitted to engage in work of a dangerous or hurtful nature; 5, make rules regarding work which it is necessary to tolerate on the part of children on Sundays and holidays in factories where fires are constantly kept up; 6, make rules regarding the night-work provided for in Article 3.

Article 8. Regulations made by the public administration shall:—1, provide the measures necessary for the execution of the present law; 2, insure the maintenance of morality and public decency in the workshops, factories, and manufactories; 3, insure the primary and religious instruction of the children; 4, prevent bad treatment and improper punishment of children; 5, insure the conditions of safety and sanitary arrangements which may be necessary to the life and health of the children.

Article 9. The chiefs of establishments shall post up in every workshop, together with the present law and the regulations of the public administration relating to it, the internal rules which they are bound to make to insure its execution.

Article 10. The Government shall institute inspections to watch over and insure the execution of the present law. The inspectors may in every establishment

cause to be shown to them the registers relating to the execution of the present law, the internal regulations, the registration books ("livrets") of the children, and the children themselves. They may have themselves accompanied by a medical man commissioned by the Prefect or Sub-Prefect.

Article 11. In cases of infraction of the present law, the inspectors shall draw up Reports ("Procès Verbaux") which shall be held good till proof be given to the contrary.

Article 12. In case of infraction of the present law, or of the regulations of the public administration drawn up for its execution, the proprietors or directors of establishments shall be summoned before the "Juge de Paix" of the canton* and punished by a police fine, which shall not exceed 15 francs (12*s.*). Infractions of the law, arising either from the admission of children under age or from excess of work, shall involve as many fines as there are children improperly admitted or employed, the amount of these fines added together not exceeding 200 francs (8*l.*) In case of repetition of the offence the proprietors or directors of establishments shall be summoned before the "Tribunal de Police Correctionnelle," and condemned to a fine of from 16 to 100 francs (12*s.* 9½*d.* to 4*l.*) In the cases provided for in the second paragraph of this Article the amount of the united fines shall never exceed 500 francs (20*l.*) It shall be considered as a repetition of the offence if previous sentence for the infraction of the present law or of the regulations of the public administration authorized by it, shall have been recorded against the offender during the twelve preceding months.

Article 13. This present law shall come into force six months after its promulgation.

The number of children working subject to this law may be reckoned at upwards of 100,000. They are very unequally distributed among the different industries. About nine-tenths of the whole are employed in spinning and weaving manufactories,—the spinning manufactories employing the greater number.

* France is divided into Departments (89), Arrondissements (373), Cantons (2,938), and Communes (37,510).

Though the law is given *in extenso*, it may not be superfluous to glance at its principal provisions:—Children are not admitted to factories under eight years of age. They only work eight hours a-day in the twenty-four up to 12 years of age, and twelve hours from 12 to 16. They do not work at night. There are certain exceptions to this rule applicable to children over 13. They do not work on Sundays and holidays. They go to school up to 12 years of age, and afterwards if they cannot show that they have received primary elementary instruction.

The law has been a good deal criticized, but it has been hitherto maintained without alteration, as the improvement in the condition of children under its protection as been undeniable.

With a view to a stricter enforcement of its provisions, an Imperial Decree was issued on the 7th December, 1868, charging the official inspectors of mines with the inspection of factories where children are employed.

Originally, the inspection was organized by the authorities of the different Departments and performed gratuitously, but the system was found to be very inadequate. The inspection was carried out with unequal strictness. Much laxity existed in certain industrial centres where the watchfulness of the authorities was only superficial, and it was rightly considered that a general system of Government inspection could alone insure the uniform and regular execution of the law.

In his speech on the 29th November last, at the opening of the Legislative Chambers, the Emperor announced as one of the measures in contemplation "a more humane regulation of the labour of children in manufactories."

Law of Apprenticeship, February 22 *and March* 4, 1851.

Chapter I.—The Contract of Apprenticeship.

Section I.—*Nature and Form of the Contract.*

Article 1. The contract of apprenticeship is that by which a manufacturer, the foreman of a workshop, or a workman obliges himself to teach the practice of his

trade to another, who obliges himself on his side to work for him, both on conditions and for a time agreed upon.

Article 2. The contract of apprenticeship is made by a legal act or by a private contract. It may also be made verbally; but the proof of it can only be received in conformity with the chapter of the Civil Code "of Contracts or Conventional Agreements in general." Notaries, Secretaries of the Conseils de Prud'hommes, Clerks of Juges de Paix can receive the contract of apprenticeship. This contract is subject for registration to a tax of 1 franc, even when it contains bonds for money, property, or receipts. The fees to the officials are fixed at 2 francs.

Article 3. The act of apprenticeship shall contain:—

(1.) The name, Christian name, age, profession, and domicile of the master.

(2.) The name, Christian name, age, and domicile of the apprentice.

(3.) The names, Christian names, profession, and domicile of his father and mother, of his guardian, or of the person placed in authority by the parents, and, wanting them, by the Juge de Paix.

(4.) The date and period of the contract.

(5.) The conditions of lodging, keep, price, and all other arrangements between the parties. It must be signed by the master and by the representatives of the apprentice.

Section II.—*Of the Conditions of the Contract.*

Article 4. No one can receive apprentices under age, unless he is himself, at least, 21 years of age.

Article 5. No master, if he is a bachelor or a widower, can lodge as apprentices, females who are minors.

Article 6. Those who have been sentenced for crime, those who have been sentenced for offences against public morals, those who have been condemned to more than three months' imprisonment for the offences contemplated in Articles 388, 401, 405, 406, 407, 408, and 423 of the Penal Code are incapacited from receiving apprentices.

Article 7. The incapacity resulting from Article 6 may be removed by the Prefect, on the advice of the

Mayor, when the person condemned shall have resided three years in the same Commune after the expiration of his sentence. At Paris the Préfet de Police shall be the person entitled to remove the incapacity.

Section III.—*Duties of Masters and Apprentices.*

Article 8. The master shall conduct himself towards the apprentice like a good head of a family, watch over his conduct and his morals both at home and abroad, and inform his parents or their representatives of serious faults which he may commit or vicious propensities which he may evince. He shall also inform them without delay in case of illness, absence, or any matter calling for their intervention. He shall only employ the apprentice, unless there are stipulations to the contrary, in works and services connected with the exercise of his trade. He shall never employ him in any which are unhealthy or beyond his strength.

Article 9 The time of actual work* for apprentices under 14 shall not exceed ten hours a-day; for apprentices between 14 and 16 it shall not exceed twelve hours. No night work may be forced upon apprentices under 16. Night work includes all work between 9 in the evening and 5 in the morning. Apprentices can in no case be made to work professionally for their masters on Sundays or on accepted or legal holidays. In cases where the apprentice shall be obliged in consequence of stipulation or custom to set the workshop in order on the above days, such work shall not last beyond 10 A.M. No infraction of the first three paragraphs of this Article can take place but by a decision made by the Prefect on the advice of the Mayor.

Article 10. If an apprentice under 16 years of age does not know how to read, write, or do sums, or if he has not completed his primary religious education, the master is bound to let him take out of the day's work the time and liberty necessary for his instruction, but this time must not exceed two hours a day.

Article 11. The apprentice owes to his master fidelity, obedience, and respect; he must assist him in his work according to his aptness and his strength. He is bound

* "Travail effectif" in law applies to the time unoccupied by eating or by rest.

to make good at the end of his apprenticeship time during which he has been unable to work through illness or absence lasting longer than fifteen days.

Article 12. The master must teach the apprentice thoroughly, and by degrees, the special art, trade, or profession contemplated in the contract. He must deliver to him at the expiration of the apprenticeship a certificate of the execution of the contract.

Article 13. Any manufacturer, head of a workshop, or workman, convicted of having seduced an apprentice from his master in order to employ him as apprentice or workman, may be liable to the whole or a part of the damages awarded to the master who has been abandoned.

Section IV.—*Of the Dissolution of the Contract.*

Article 14. The first two months of apprenticeship are considered as a time of trial, during which the contract can be dissolved by the sole wish of one of the parties. In such a case no indemnity shall be awarded to either party unless by special stipulation.

Article 15. The contract is legally dissolved :—1, by the death of the master or apprentice ; 2, if the apprentice or the master is called to the military service ; 3, if the master or the apprentice shall incur one of the sentences provided against in Article 6 of the present law ; 4, in the case of female minors, in event of the death of the master's wife, or any other woman of the family who managed the household at the time the contract was made.

Article 16. The contract may be dissolved on the demand of both parties or of one of the parties :—1, in the case of one of the parties not fulfilling the stipulations of the contract; 2, on account of serious or habitual violation of the regulations of the present law ; 3, on account of the habitual misconduct on the part of the apprentice ; 4, if the master remove his residence to another commune from the one in which he resided at the time the contract was made. But the demand for a dissolution of contract based on this ground shall only be received during the three months, commencing from the day on which the master changed his residence ; 5, if the master or apprentice undergo a sentence involving

more than a month's imprisonment; 6, if the apprentice contract a marriage.

Article 17. If the term fixed upon for the duration of the apprenticeship exceed the maximum of the term fixed by local usage, it may be reduced or the contract dissolved.

Chapter II.

Article 18. All demands for the execution or dissolution of contract shall be judged by the Conseil des Prudhommes within the jurisdiction of which the master may happen to be, and in default of the Conseil, by the Juge de Paix of the canton. Complaints which may be brought against third parties, in virtue of Article 13 of the present Law, shall be brought before the Conseil des Prudhommes, or before the Juge de Paix of their place of domicile.

Article 19. In the various cases of dissolution of contract, provided for in sec. 4, chap. i., the indemnities or restitutions due to one or other of the parties, shall, in default of express stipulation, be regulated by the Conseil des Prud'hommes, or by the Juge de Paix in those cantons which are not subject to the jurisdiction of the Conseil des Prud'hommes.

Article 20. All violation of Articles 4, 5, 6, 9 and 10, of the present law shall be prosecuted before the Tribunal of Police, and punished by a fine of 5 to 15 francs (4 to 12 shillings). For violation of Articles 4, 8, 9 and 10, the Tribunal of Police may, in case of a repetition of the offence, inflict, in addition to the fine, imprisonment of one to five days. In case of repetition of the offence, violation of the 6th Article, shall be prosecuted before the Tribunaux Correctionnels, and punished by imprisonment from fifteen days to three months, not counting a fine which may range from 50 to 300 francs (2*l.* to 12*l.*)

Article 21. The rules of Article 453 of the Penal Code are applicable to the circumstances provided for in the present law.

Article 22. The Articles 9, 10 and 11 of the law of the 21st Germinal year XI are abrogated.

Previous to 1791 apprenticeship was compulsory in

every trade. The Law of the 2nd of May of that year proclaimed the freedom of all callings, and consequently of apprenticeship. The law of 22nd Germinal year XI (1803) dealt with beginners in trades, and endeavoured to impose certain regulations. The Conseils des Prud-hommes established three years later by Napoleon I, supplied in part only the want of a regular law, and it was not till the year 1851 that the relations between master and apprentice were finally determined by legislative enactments.

The duration of apprenticeship in the majority of trades is from three to four years if a premium is given, from five to six if no premium is given. The premium is a matter of arrangement between the parties, and consists of time and money, or of time only. The mode of payment of money to the master varies; in general it is paid by instalments and in advance of each term. At Lyons it is usual to assign to the apprentice in the silk manufactories a certain amount of work as soon as he has acquired the rudiments of his trade. For all the work he does over and above he receives half profit per piece. At Paris the apprentice often receives weekly or monthly wages after he has finished a certain period of apprenticeship. At Rouen another system is in force. The apprentices receive wages from the beginning of their apprenticeship and the master keeps back 25 centimes ($2\frac{1}{2}d.$) a-day, amounting at the end to a sum of 200 or 300 francs (from 8*l.* to 12*l.*), which is given to them after the execution of their engagement. In case of non-execution, the master retains so much of it as will compensate him for the loss he sustains. He may retain the whole if the apprentice leaves him without good reason, or draws dismissal upon himself by bad conduct.

The apprentice is responsible to his master for injury done to his work, purposely or by unpardonable negligence, but if the damage results from want of experience or from the awkwardness natural to youth, the master has only himself to blame.

The work which the master can by law exact from the apprentice is confined to the exercise of the trade; but there are certain services authorized by custom which the Law does not appear to prohibit, such as the opening, closing, and setting in order of the premises. Some masters exact domestic services from their apprentices.

Errands on the business of the workshop also enter into the duties of apprenticeship, and it is customary for apprentices to render small services to the workmen, such as buying their meals for them. The workmen in return teach and take care of the apprentices. These extra services usually cease after the first year. The master nearly always supplies the tools of the apprentice. In case of illness the master generally takes care of him, but the apprentice pays for the doctor and the medicine.

Article 14 of the Law providing that the two first months shall be time of trial ratified legally a general custom. The contract frequently contains a clause giving the power to either, or both parties, to cancel it on the payment of a forfeit by the party who puts the clause in force. At the close of the contract the master delivers to the apprentice the bed, tools, &c., belonging to him.

The claim of a master for money due on account of board, lodgings, or lessons, if unasserted, lapses after one year where the contract is verbal and after thirty years where the contract is written.

A Form of Contract of Apprenticeship.

Between the undersigned:

M——— (the master, state name in full, profession, and residence) on the one side; and N——— (the apprentice, give the name in full and age. If he is a minor, add that he is represented by M——— his father, mother, or guardian, whether legal or appointed by the family or by the Juge de Paix, giving the name, profession, and residence of the person mentioned) on the other side, has been agreed as follows:—

Article 1. M (the master), engages to receive N as apprentice during years, which shall begin on the and finish on the and to teach him his trade in the manner prescribed by law;

To provide him with healthy and clean lodging and a bed to himself;

To board him befittingly;

To take charge of his washing, giving him clean linen once a week at least;

To treat him kindly and gently;

To inflict no corporal punishment and not to curtail his food;

To watch over his conduct and his morals;

To take care of him or cause him to be taken care of at his (the master) home, in case of illness not exceeding days in duration.

Article 2. On his side N——— (the apprentice), undertakes during the number of years above-mentioned, to receive with attention, and docility, and respect, the instruction and orders of M——— (the master), and to do for him all the work of which he is capable in conformity with the law.

Article 3. (Here come the special stipulations. The most usual is that referring to the forfeit payable by the party cancelling the contract.)

Article 4. (If security is given for the apprentice the name, &c., of the person giving it should be mentioned here).

Done in duplicate.

At this

(Signed)

Engagements between Employers and Workmen.

Article 1710 of the Code Civil says: "The hire of labour is a contract by which one party binds himself or herself to do something for the other at a price stipulated between them."

It proceeds to divide hire into three class of which the first only refers to workmen. The hirer is now generally termed "patron" in France, the word master having become obnoxious.

Work is hired by the time and by the task.

Workmen by the time engage themselves for a day, week, fortnight, or month.

Workmen by the task engage themselves to work for a sum in proportion to the amount of work they execute with the material furnished to them, without regard to the time they employ in it. They are usually styled "façonniers" or "tâcherons," This class of workmen becomes more numerous every day. The clever workman can use his time to better purpose, and the untried

workman is hired in this manner to enable the employer to judge of his capacity. Piece workmen often themselves employ men to work for them; and they sometimes give all, or part, of their work to other piece workmen. This process is called "marchandage."

In hiring by the time the parties have only to agree about the work to be done, the length of time, and the price of the labour. The agreement is nearly always verbal.

In hiring labour by the task it is necessary that the work should be promised by one party (the workman) and the material by the other (the employer), in addition to the stipulation of price to be paid by the latter.

The following five points are essential to constitute a legal contract of hire :—

1. Consent.
2. Pay.
3. Work to be done.
4. Length of engagement.
5. Notice.

1. *Consent* must be freely given by both parties without fraud, error, deceit, or violence.

2. *Pay* is settled between the two contracting parties either for hire by time or task. Sometimes the amount of pay is taken for granted, as, for instance, when the workman undertakes to work in a workshop where the daily pay, or pay for piecework is settled for all workmen of the same description by an internal regulation posted up in the workshop. Again, the pay is considered as settled if similar days' work or tasks have been undertaken before by the workman, and he has received his wages without remark. No augmentation or diminution of pay can take place without notice.

The pay is nearly always determined beforehand, either expressly or tacitly. In the paper-staining trade at Paris, the pay is usually not settled till after the work is done by the task workman. In some other trades the pay is fixed only after a week's trial. In hiring by time the pay is fixed at so much a-day, or at so much an hour, even when the duration of contract exceed the day. In hiring by the task, so much is paid by the piece, or by the dozen pieces, by a metre's length, or by any other settled quantity.

The wages for work by time, or by the piece, provided

the work takes place in the workshop of the manufacturer, are usually paid every week, sometimes at the end of a fortnight, or month, nearly everywhere on Saturday, without receipt. At Paris, in some small workshops, payment takes place on Sunday.

Task-work is paid on completion of the work.

In addition to the pay given for the day or piece, masters not unfrequently accord certain extras. At Paris, farriers lodge the workmen, or pay instead 15 to 20 centimes (1½*d.* to 2*d.*) a-day. In some trades the workmen is boarded, but this becomes rarer and rarer every day. At Lyons, the foremen eat at their employers' table, their Conseil de Prudhommes being of opinion that the practice is conducive to the morality which distinguishes artizans in the silk manufacture.

The master frequently makes advances to the workman, and the law enables him to recover these advances in an equitable manner.

3. *Work to be done.*—The work must not be beyond the power of the workman, and must not be forbidden by law. (Article 1172, Code Civil.)

4. *Length of engagement* varies with the locality, nature of work, and description of contract.

In engagements by the time their length is fixed by the parties, or by the custom of the place or branch of industry. The period in most cases is that between the times of payment, that is to say, for a week. This is the habit at Paris, Rouen, and Mulhouse. In some towns engagements are made by the day or by the fortnight, rarely by the month. A week represents six days' labour, a fortnight twelve days, the Sunday being invariably excepted in towns. In the country a week is paid as seven days' work, the Sunday being usually given in to encourage workmen to make the journey.

The engagement holds good for the time agreed upon whatever arrangement is made about the periods of payment.

Foremen are engaged for a month at least, generally for a year, occasionally for two years or three years.

In task work a limit is nearly always fixed for the delivery of the work. The nature of the work and general custom determine the period allowed for the task in case the contract is silent on the point.

4. *Notice.*—If the engagement is for a week, general

custom requires that the party desiring to put an end to it should give a week's notice. In some towns, however, if the engagement is for more than a week the time of notice must correspond to the whole time of engagement. At Paris a week suffices whatever be the length of the engagement.

It is customary to give notice on Saturday, pay-day, for the following Saturday if the interval correspond to the length of the engagement.

In task-work notice is not generally requisite, as the engagement terminates with the completion of the work; but it is given in some places. At Rouen, for instance, the workman though not expected to give notice after the completion of his first piece, which is regarded as a trial, if he continue to work for the same employer, must on wishing to leave first weave a piece which is styled "chaine de congé," and on being dismissed weaves a "chaine de congé" before quitting.

If the piece workman works in the workshop he gives a week's notice at Paris; a week, a fortnight, or even a month's notice in other towns.

Notice is invariably given verbally.

Unless notice is given the engagement continues on the footing originally agreed upon.

Evidence of Engagement.

The engagement may be written, but in practice it is nearly always verbal.

In a great many places, especially at Paris, workmen out of work assemble for hire at a particular spot every day, or on certain days, each trade taking some special spot. This traffic is called "embauchage."

The note made on the livret of the workman and entered by the employer on his register, is evidence of the existence of the engagement till evidence is given to the contrary. Written engagements must be on stamped paper and registered. In default of written engagement, if the hiring is denied it may be proved by witnesses as long as the contract does not exceed 150 francs (6*l.*) or there is no beginning of written proof; by which term is understood, any written act emanating from the person against whom the claim is made or

from the person he represents which gives weight to the claim.

Duties and Obligations of Masters and Men towards each other.

Discipline of the Workshop.—Many employers post up on the walls of the workshop special regulations drawn up with a view to keep order. They mostly forbid workmen to smoke in the workshop, or to enter when drunk. They bear upon the form and time of work and the fines imposed on the men. These regulations are generally registered at the Conseils des Prudhommes, but they cannot be considered legally binding.

It may be observed that, as a rule, the workmen keep to the regulations. The fines are nearly always applied to the support of sick workmen the education of children or other benevolent purposes.

In many factories where no regulations are posted up, it is customary to inform the workmen verbally that certain rules must be observed; such as prohibition to leave the premises during the hours of work, to introduce strangers, to take meals in the workshop, to bring in wine or brandy, to sing, gossip, to collect together except for work to be done in common, and especially to smoke if it is dangerous.

Duration of Work.—In large factories the time for work is generally twelve hours; in rare instances thirteen or fourteen. In Paris only, a few factories admit eleven hours. At Paris and at Rouen there are two meals a day. At Lyons, St. Quentin, Nancy, and Roubaix there are three. During winter when the work begins later, the days' work is also shorter, although work is somtimes carried on in the evening up to 8 or 9 o'clock; mealtime is then reduced to a half-hour. In summer and in winter the hours for meals varies according to the convenience of the employer. At Paris the most usual time is from 9 to 10 for breakfast, from 2 to 3 for dinner.

In the country the days' work begins at 5 in the morning and ends at 7 in the evening with two hours for meals.

At Paris, in several factories, the time of work is

reckoned by the hour. The manager marks in a register the number of hours' work due to the workman who may verify the entry on leaving the factory in the evening. If he fail to do so the entry is accepted as evidence till he give proof to the contrary.

Of course the parties are at liberty to increase the time of work. In some factories at Paris and at Rouen, if work presses and the hands consent to work a couple of hours more, the employer pays them for three.

Payment is made to the worker, be it a married woman or child, unless the husband, father, or guardian, have previously taken steps to prevent it. The employer is allowed by law to refund himself for advances made to a workman, by keeping back one-tenth of his wages, the debt being inscribed in the livret, and amounting to not more than 30 francs (1*l.* 4*s.*) In the case of a workman in debt changing employers, the new master is bound to keep back the tenth in favour of the last master.

Responsibility.—The workman is responsible to his employer for loss, through imprudence or negligence. It is customary to make good such loss by deduction from the wages.

As a general rule, the day workman is expected to provide himself with the tools which the exercise of his trade requires. In factories the tools usually belong to the employer.

Piecework.—This designation applies to the labour of those workmen who give nothing but their industry to the work, or at most an insignificant amount of material; the cabinetmaker, for instance, who supplies glue, varnish, nails, &c., the tailor, thread, silk, &c.

The terms of the engagement comprise three essential obligations on the part of the workman.

1. If the workman allow the time fixed for the execution of the work to expire without delivery, he is responsible for the loss occasioned to the employer.

2. He is also responsible for the correctness of his work, which is usually to copy a given model. He is not to concern himself with the perfection or the imperfection of the model given to him. He has simply to render to his employer a similar piece of work. The work is not always accepted at once If, for instance, it forms part of a musical or optical instrument, the piece made by one workman has to be fitted to a piece made

by another; the two pieces united, are in turn passed to a third, and so on, till the instrument is complete. In such a case each successive workman accepts the work as it comes to him at his own risk; and the workman who finishes it, presents it for acceptance to the employer, and is responsible for the whole.

If the piecework is made out of the workshop by different workmen, the employer must, in that case, receive each piece, and the workman is responsible to him, solely for the part he has made.

The responsibility of the workman ceases on the acceptance of the work.

3. The workman must account to the employer for all the material given to him: he returns it either fashioned or raw.

From the difficulty of estimating the loss of material, which is inseparable from manufacture, it is not unusual for the employer to make a certain allowance on the weight of the piece made. In the jewellers' trade, 1 per cent. is allowed on the weight to workmen working in their own homes, and they are responsible for the waste in workmanship. In some cases they are not called upon to account for the waste of workmanship. provided they furnish the soldering material.

Termination of Engagement.

The engagement may either terminate of itself or by judicial decision.

It terminates of itself, if it is by time, at the expiration of the time fixed upon by the parties for the engagement.

If it is by the piece, on the completion and delivery of the work undertaken. The expiration of the time fixed for the work does not terminate the engagement, but it gives the employer a right according to circumstances to claim a judicial termination.

Whether the engagement be by time or piece it also terminates of itself.

1. By the death of the workman. The death of the employer does not terminate the engagement; the heir is responsible.

2. Through unforeseen circumstances ("force ma-

jeure"), such as fire, inundation, &c., which render it impossible to continue the works.

3. By the call of the workman or the employer to the military service.

The engagement may also terminate before its fulfilment on the desire of the master, but in such a case he must pay the workman as though the engagement were carried out. This of course refers to cases in which the workman has done nothing which entitles his employer to get the engagement cancelled judicially.

It is unnecessary to add that the engagement may terminate by mutual consent at any time.

A judicial dissolution of the engagement is rarely resorted to. The parties disagreeing generally separate voluntarily without appealing to law; it may, however, be invoked in the following cases:—

In engagement by Time.

If the workman refuses to execute his orders;
If he abandons his work;
If he misapplies his time;
If he is unable or neglects to perform the work agreed upon;
If he is wanting in respect to his employer, or his employer's family;
If he strikes him or works for others to his prejudice;
If he causes disorder in the factory.

In engagements by the Piece.

If working at his employer's he is guilty of any of the foregoing acts relating to the personal relations between workman and employer;

If in the workmanship there is undoubted incapacity, inaccurate work, non-performance within the time stipulated, deterioration of the material supplied, misapplication of the material.

The workman can appeal to law to get his engagement cancelled.

In engagement by Time.

If the master does not pay him his wages;

If he puts him to work in an unhealthy workshop;

If he imposes upon him work foreign to that agreed upon, or attempts to make him work during the hours fixed for meals or rest;

If he insults or strikes him.

In engagements by the piece.

In the above cases, provided the workman works in his employer's factory—

If the quality of the material furnished by the employer is bad;

If he is behindhand in furnishing it;

If he refuses to maintain the order as he gave it;

If he exacts conditions or work not before agreed upon;

The injured party may sue for the dissolution of the contract with or without damages.

Jurisdiction.

All civil suits arising from disputes about contract of hire or wages are heard by the Conseils de Prud'hommes, or in default of a Conseil de Prud'hommes by a Juge de Paix of the district. Disputes connected with the discipline of the factory may come either before the Conseils de Prud'hommes or the Juge de Paix indifferently.

Evidence regarding Amount of Wages.

Allusion may here be made to an Article of the Code Napoléon, now, happily, no longer existing, which governed the proof of the amount of wages till the 2nd of August, 1868, the date of the Imperial Decree, promulgating the law by which it was abolished:—

It is thus spoken of in the Report of M. Mathieu to the Chamber of Deputies:—

"The Article 1781, as you are aware, regulates one of the numerous varieties of contract of hire,—the hire of servants and workmen. Infringing in the most serious manner the principles of general law in the matter of proof, it sets forth that—

"'The master is believed upon his affirmation respecting the amount of wages, the payment of the year elapsed, sums paid on account of the current year.'

"Thus, whether the sum is greater or less than 150 francs, whether there is or not the commencement of written evidence, whether the oral evidence and the presumption, weighty, precise, and agreeing, are admitted or not admitted, the Judge is tied. There is a judge above him—the master; a means of decision imposed upon his conscience—the master's affirmation. Vainly the magistrate may entertain the absolute conviction that the claim of the servant or workman is legitimate—the employer affirms: he must be believed, and dictates the sentence.

"Such is the law of which the repeal is proposed by the Government."

It is certainly remarkable that such a law should have existed till last year in a country in which equality is a watchword.

"*Livrets.*"

Every workman not an apprentice is bound by law to have in his possession a little note-book called a "livret." This note-book is furnished to him by the Mayor, in the Provinces, by the Prefect of Police at Paris. It contains in print the laws on the subject and gives the name, age, profession, and description of the bearer. In it must be inscribed all the engagements which he undertakes in the exercise of his trade, the date of their commencement and close, name of employers, memoranda of debts and of movements. The object of the institution is to render more exact the execution of engagements between employers and workmen, and to insure the payment of advances made to the latter. In fact, an employer engaging a workman whose livret does not bear on it the discharge of his late master, is liable to the latter for the fulfilment of the engagement. The entry on the livret of a debt incurred through advances justifies the retention of a tenth part of the wages until the extinction of the debt.

In practice the regulations are always eluded: the livret bearing the discharge of the preceding employer is usually deposited with the master under whom the

artizan works ; it remains there without being marked till he leaves, and on his departure passes without any entry to another employer. As regards debt, it is difficult to make the workmen keep a livret on which a debt is inscribed ; he quickly finds means to get rid of the inconvenient witness. A debt upon his book is a blot even after it is paid.

Thus the livret does not fulfil the object with which it was instituted, and in addition is regarded by the industrial classes as a mark of degradation, almost of servitude. Its existence plays so important a part in the condition of the French artizan that it would be advisable to devote considerable space to an account of its use and influence, were it not on the eve of abolition.

A Bill was presented to the Corps Législatif towards the close of last Session repealing all the laws relating to the workman's livret, but time failed to admit of its passing.

The speech of the Emperor at the sitting of the "Conseil d'Etat" of the 23rd of March of the present year, on the occasion of the discussion relative to this Bill, records the progress that has been made during his reign in legislating for the industrial classes. The subject is one in which His Majesty is known to take the deepest interest, and there is little question that more has been accomplished within the last twenty years to better their condition than was even attempted during the half century which succeeded the great revolution, and preceded his advent to power.

The Emperor spoke as follows :—

"Gentlemen,

"I was anxious to preside to-day at the Conseil d'Etat, in order that I might explain to you the train of ideas which guided me in inviting the Government to submit to you a bill relative to the suppression of the 'Livrets d'Ouvriers.'

"It must be acknowledged that the society in which we live contains many opposing elements. Do we not, indeed, see on the one hand legitimate aspirations, and a just desire for improvement ; on the other, subversive theories and criminal covetousness ? The duty of the Government is to satisfy the former with resolution, and to reject the latter with firmness.

"If we compare the actual state of the large majority of the people with what it was in the last century, we congratulate ourselves on the progress attained, abuses suppressed, and improvement in public morals. Yet if we fathom the diseases of the most flourishing of people, we still discover beneath the appearance of prosperity many unmerited misfortunes, calling for the sympathy of all generous hearts, many unsolved problems calling calling for the united action of all reflecting minds.

"It is with this feeling that certain laws have been prepared by you and adopted by the Corps Législatif; some purely philanthropic, such as the laws of public relief, mutual assistance, and insurance in case of accident or death; others authorizing workmen to unite their savings to oppose the combination of wages to the union of capital, permitting them to discuss their interests at meetings, and finally legalizing their evidence in the Court of Justice.

"The abolition of the 'Livrets d'Ouvriers,' demanded above all as a moral satisfaction, liberating the workmen from irksome formalities, will complete the series of measures which places him under the general law, and elevates him in his own eyes.

"I do not harbour the idea that by pursuing this policy I shall stifle prejudice, disarm hatred, or increase my popularity. But that of which I am quite convinced is, that I shall derive from it new energies to resist evil designs.

"When every useful improvement has been admitted, everything done that is just and right, it is possible to maintain order with greater authority, because then strength rests upon reason, and a consciousness of duty performed."

Articles of the Penal Code affecting Workmen.

The Articles of the Penal Code relating to coalition have been twice modified since their establishment in 1810. Their form then nearly textually confirmed the Law of 22nd Germinal, year XI, which for the first time in France defined the act of coalition, and subjected it to restriction.

The change of 1849 was principally made with a

view to equalize the penalties between employers and workmen, and to increase them in the case of movers and promoters of coalitions. The workmen, however, remained at great disadvantage in all questions relating to the regulation of labour. A simple understanding between a small number to leave work unless their pay was augmented, sufficed to bring them within reach of the Law, even if the request were quietly made and no disorder resulted.

The object of the modification of the Law in 1864 was to put an end to all penal restrictions on the simple concert of workman, and at the present moment they enjoy full liberty to strike. Intimidation and coercion of course continue to be illegal, and are visited with severe punishment.

To enable a comparison of the three systems of 1810, 1849, and 1864, they are here given side by side:—

Articles of the Penal Code relating to Coalitions, in

1810.

Article 414.—All coalition on the part of those who employ workmen, tending unjustly and improperly to force a fall in wages, followed by an attempt or the beginning of execution, shall be punished by imprisonment of from six days to one month, and by a fine of from 200 francs (8*l.*, to 3,000 francs (120*l.*)

Article 415.—All coalition on the part of workmen in order, at the same moment, to put a stop to work, to interdict work in a workshop, to prevent the going and remaining there before or after certain hours, and in general to suspend, prevent, or raise the price of labour, if there has been an attempt or the beginning of execution, shall be punished by imprisonment of one month minimum to three months maximum. The chiefs or movers shall be punished by imprisonment of from two to five years.

Article 416.—Workmen who shall have imposed fines, prohibitions, interdictions, or any restrictions coming under the term "damnations," with whatever qualification, be they upon the managers of the workshop or contractors for labour, or upon one another, shall likewise be punished by the penalties inflicted in the preceding Article, and according to the same distinctions. In the cases mentioned in the present and preceding Articles, the chiefs or movers of the offence may, on the expiration of the sentence, be placed under the surveillance of the Police for from two to five years.

1849.

Article 414.—1. All coalition among those who employ workmen, tending to force a fall in wages, if there has been an attempt or the beginning of execution. 2. All coalition on the part of the workmen to cause, at the same moment, cessation of work, interdiction of work in the workshop, prevention of going thither before or after certain hours, and in general the stopping, preventing, or raising the price of labour, if there has been an attempt or the beginning of execution, shall be punished by imprisonment of from six days to three months, and fine of from 16 francs to 1,000 francs (12*s.* 9½*d.* to 400*l.*) In the cases provided for by the two preceding paragraphs, the chiefs or movers shall be punished by imprisonment of from two to five years.

Article 415.—Managers of workshops, contractors for labour, and workmen who, in concert, may have imposed fines other than such as have for object the discipline of the interior of the workshop, prohibitions, interdictions, or whatever restrictions, coming under the term "damnations" under whatever qualification, either on the part of the managers of workshops, or contractors upon the workmen, or on the part of the latter upon the managers and contractors, or upon one another, shall also be subject to the penalties imposed in preceding Article, and according to the same distinctions.

Article 416.—In the cases provided for in the two preceding Articles, the chiefs or movers may, at the expiration of the sentence, be placed under the surveillance of the Police for from two to five years.

1864.

Article 414.—Whoever by the aid of violence, blows, menace, or fraudulent manœuvre, shall have brought about or maintained, attempted to bring about or maintain, a concerted cessation of work with the object of forcing the rise or fall of wages, or of infringing the free exercise of industry or of work, shall be punished by imprisonment of from six days to three years, and a fine of from 16 francs to 3,000 francs (12*s.* 9½*d.* to 120*l.*), or by one only of these penalties.

Article 415.—When the acts punished by the preceding Articles shall have been committed as the result of a concerted plan, the guilty may, by decree or judgment, be subjected to the surveillance of the Police during from two to five years.

Article 416.—All workmen, employers, and contractors for labour who, by means of fines, prohibitions, restrictions, interdictions resulting from a concerted plan, shall have infringed the free exercise of industry and labour, shall be punished by imprisonment of from six days to three months, and a fine of from 16 francs to 3,000 francs (12*s.* 9½*d.* to 120*l.*), or to one only of these penalties.

Formation of Associations.

Article 291 of the Penal Code, although it does not interfere with the liberty of strikers, gives the Government complete power to prevent regular meetings with any particular object. "No association of more than twenty persons, whose object is to meet every day or on certain days, to occupy themselves with religious, literary, political, or other matters, shall be formed without the consent of the Government, and under the conditions which it shall please the public authority to impose." This Article, which does not appear to be modified by the Law of June 6, 1868, concerning public meetings, continues to give great umbrage to that portion of the industrial class which busies itself with politics, and its abolition forms part of the programme of the Opposition for the present Session.

Article 417 is as follows:—

Seduction of workmen from their employment.

"Whoever, with a view to injure French industry, shall have caused to pass into a foreign country, the managers, shopmen, or workmen of an establishment, shall be punished by imprisonment from six months to two years, and by a fine of from 50 to 300 francs (2*l.* to 12*l.*) The preamble of the Law says:—Though every one should be free to make the most of his industry and his talents wherever he may employ them to the best advantage, it is right to punish any one who entices away men necessary to an establishment, not with the object of obtaining for them an often doubtful advantage, but to produce the ruin of the establishment itself."

Article 418 says:—

Revelation of trade secrets.

Every manager, shopman, or workman in a factory, who shall have communicated to foreigners or to Frenchmen residing in foreign countries secrets of the factory in which he is employed, shall be punished by imprisonment of from two to five years, and a fine of from 500 francs to 20,000 francs (20*l.* to 800*l.*)

If such secrets have been communicated to Frenchmen residing in France the punishment shall consist of imprisonment of from three months to two years, and a fine of from 16 francs to 200 francs (12*s.* 9½*d.* to 8*l.*)

Criminal Statistics of the Artizan and Industrial Classes in France.

TABLE of Criminal Statistics for 1867,* showing the Profession of the Accused, their Sex, their Domicile, Urban or Rural; whether the Crimes are against the Person or Property, and the Result of Prosecution.

Profession of the Accused.	Total of Accused.	Number of—		Number of Accused.			Number of Accused.			Accused of Crime against		Result of Prosecutions.				
				Exercising their Profession.		Living in Idleness.	Living in—		With fixed Domicile.			Number of Condemned.				Acquitted.
		Males.	Females.	On their own account.	On the account of others.		Rural Communes.	Urban Communes.		The person.	Property.	To Death.	Hard Labour.	Imprisonment of more than 1 Year.	1 Year or less, or a Fine.	
Workers in wood, carpenters, &c. ..	288	282	6	70	204	14	138	129	21	110	175	5	47	165	14	61
,, in leather and hides ..	33	32	1	7	22	4	7	23	3	13	20	1	7	19	1	5
,, in iron and other metals ..	277	277	..	50	212	15	67	186	24	106	171	2	69	152	5	49
,, in thread, wool, cotton, silk, &c.	222	195	27	26	179	17	93	120	9	93	129	1	64	113	7	37
,, in stone, masons, tilers, &c.	195	195	..	16	164	15	74	99	22	86	109	1	43	114	8	29
,, in chemical products ..	11	9	2	4	7	..	6	5	..	3	8	..	..	8	..	3
,, in clay, brickmakers, &c...	24	24	..	4	18	2	12	10	2	13	11	..	5	12	..	7
Painters and glaziers	28	28	..	7	17	4	5	19	4	6	22	..	10	15	..	3
Bakers, pastrycooks	76	72	4	20	52	4	25	47	4	14	62	..	10	34	5	27
Hatters	7	7	..	1	5	1	3	3	1	4	3	..	1	3	..	3
Bootmakers	120	116	4	36	70	14	33	79	8	48	72	1	42	58	5	14
Hairdressers, barbers	18	18	..	9	6	3	7	10	1	12	6	..	5	11	..	2
Tailors, dressmakers	139	57	82	55	72	12	56	74	9	74	65	..	34	58	6	41
Upholsterers, embroiderers ..	11	10	1	1	10	..	1	10	..	3	8	..	..	9	..	2
Washing	17	5	12	8	7	2	2	15	..	9	8	..	3	5	2	7
Butchers and porkbutchers ..	37	37	..	19	18	..	17	19	1	14	23	1	5	22	..	9
Millers	50	48	2	17	30	3	37	12	1	23	27	..	9	23	2	16
Agricultural, commercial, and liberal professions, and accused of no profession	3,054	2,466	388	1,037	1,706	311	1,603	1,279	172	1,281	1,773	13	545	1,605	152	795
Total	4,607	3,878	729	1,387	2,799	421	2,186	2,139	282	1,915	2,692	25	899	2,426	207	1,050
		4,607		4,607			4,607			4,607		4,607				

* Compte Général de l'Administration de la Justice Criminelle en France pendant l'année, 1867. Paris, Mars 1869. Tableau xxi.

This Table shows that the proportion of accused belonging to the industrial classes to the total number of accused, during the year 1867, was 14 to 100,000.

Section III.—Wages in Paris.

An elaborate statistical work on wages in France* was published by the French Government in 1863. It deals with the price of food, labour, and lodging; and at first sight it appeared that a gleaning of the information contained in it would answer the purpose of the present Report, but on examination the latest date of the Tables of Wages proved to be for 1857 for the provinces, and 1853 for Paris. Since then prices have risen very rapidly, so rapidly that the rate of 1853, even accompanied by a conjectural statement of the general rise per cent., would hardly give any accurate idea of the present pay of the industrial classes. Some trades have remained comparatively stationary, as is the case in nearly all those in which women are exclusively employed; while others have advanced beyond the general rate, such as weavers, tailors, jewellers, &c.

It therefore seemed absolutely necessary, with a view to present utility, to obtain an account of the wages paid at the present moment. In this endeavour the inquiry has been confined to Paris, and to trades of which the wages are given in the Government work, in order to enable a comparison with it and with other statistics compiled by the Chamber of Commerce of Paris in 1860.† The short notes on the different industries appended to each Table are compiled principally from the latter work. Thus the information given concerning wages for the years 1853 and 1860 is based upon minute and widespread official investigation; the last column for 1869 merely gives the result of such a limited inquiry as it is possible for a private person to make. Taking it for granted that these last Returns

* "Statistique de la France." Deuxième Série. Tome XII. "Prix et Salaires à diverses époques." Strasbourg, 1863.

† "Statistique de l'Industrie de Paris, résultant de l'Enquête faite par la Chambre de Commerce pour l'Année 1860." Paris, 1864.

are not very inaccurate, the rate of wages has risen in Paris about 25 per cent. since 1853; while the cost of food, which can be ascertained with more certainty, has risen nearly 50 per cent. since 1855.

TABLE showing the Price of certain Provisions in 1855 and 1869.

Year.	Bread ½ Kilogramme (1lb. 1⅞ozs.)	Beef ½ Kilogramme	Butter ½ Kilogramme.		12 Eggs.	Potatoes 1 Decalitre (2 Imp. gals. 1½ pts.)	Ordinary Wine 1 Litre (Pts. 1¾.)	Total.	Increase.
			Table.	Kitchen.					
	d.	*d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*
1855	1⅞	6	1 2	0 10½	0 7¼	0 9½	7¼	4 8	..
1869	2	10	1 7⅝	1 2⅜	1 2⅜	1 2⅜	7⅝	6 10	2 4

A workman can board very well in Paris at the rate of 3 francs (2*s.* 4¾*d.*) a-day. The following bill of fare, giving the prices, comes from a respectable café restaurant on the Boulevard du Temple:—

	Centimes.	Pence.		Centimes.	Pence.
Café au lait	15 & 20	1½ to 1⅞	Biftecks	40	3⅞
Chocolat	15 & 20	1½ to 1⅞	Veau, Gigot, Rosbif ..	40	3⅞
Bouillon	15	1½	Salade	20	1⅞
Potage	20	1⅞	Légumes	20	1⅞
Bœuf	25	2⅜	Dessert	15	1½
Ordinaire.. ..	35	3⅜	Vin au litre	80	7⅝
Ragout	30	2⅞	Bordeaux et Macon, (la bouteille)	100	9⅝
Plats du jour ..	30	2			
Fricandeau ..	40	3⅞	Gloria (spirits) ..	25	2⅜
Cotelettes	35	3⅜	Bierre de Strasbourg (the glass)	25	2⅜

The average price of lodgings for a family belonging to the industrial class is about 2*l.* 10*s.* a-year.

Extract from the Official Report on the Wages of the Industrial Classes, 1863.

"The examination of the increase of wages, proved by documents of charitable institutions running over thirty-two years, may be summed up in the remark that, while the price of living has increased 45 per cent., wages (at

least for workmen engaged in the building trade, the most regularly paid and the most actively employed) have only increased 17 per cent., and this increase has only taken place of late years, under the double influence of great and prolonged dearness and an active demand for work.

At the same time this comparison holds good merely as regards workmen engaged in the minor industries, of which, however, the growing importance cannot be denied, notwithstanding the tendency towards the rapid centralization of the productive power of the country. A further inquiry, of which the elements are already being collected by the Government, will show whether, in spite of the competition of machinery and idle time, longer and more frequent in the greater than in the minor industries, the wages in the former case have increased in a higher ratio than in the latter.

If we compare the rise in living and in wages during the five years between 1853 and 1857, we find that the price of beef has risen 25 per cent., and wages only 14 per cent. Mutton appears to have undergone no considerable fluctuation in price from the first to the last year of this period.

Is it to be concluded from this that the condition of the industrial classes has deteriorated? We think not. In the first place, if political crises did not so often interrupt the naturally growing prosperity of the country, production would follow a regularly ascending course, which would guard the working population against the consequences of a deficiency of employment. Besides, that which is requisite for their welfare is rather regular constant and certain wages, than high wages accompanied by irregularity in the duration of the engagement.

On the other hand, though it is true that the price of articles of consumption obeys a law of almost continuous increase, it is no less true that the price of manufactured articles, especially clothing and furniture, follow a contrary course. The workman is therefore better and more warmly clad, and his furniture is more comfortable and cheaper than formerly. This remark applies in particular to workmen in the large centres of population, where competition stimulates industrial

activity and fosters cheapness. Without doubt this advantage is balanced to a great degree by the dearness of lodging. But in the first place, lodgings in nearly all the important towns are relieved of their share of taxation by means of a charge on the octroi dues. In the second place, recent and fortunate experiments in the principal capitals of Europe, especially at Paris, London, and Berlin, have shown speculators that it is possible to associate benevolence to self-interest in building healthy and comfortable dwellings for the industrial classes at a very moderate cost. The beginning in this line has been accomplished, and it is to be hoped that the results may be speedy and efficacious. The migration to the outlying suburbs would be a benefit to the workmen of our great cities if the railway companies would some day appropriate special trains night and morning to their use.

It behoves us, moreover, to recognize a decided progress among our industrial population in order, economy, and foresight. Waste and intemperance have diminished. Thanks to the wise sacrifices made by towns, vast promenades, where art has brought together everything that can amuse and enchant, are by degrees drawing the artizan away from the unwholesome tavern haunts, to bring him and his family to green swards, beneath beautiful trees, beside clear water, and exciting in him at the same time that sentiment for art which beautiful and useful works always create.

The savings' banks, moreover, have taught him the value of economy in fructifying savings which formerly, for want of a sure and easy means of investment, were wasted in expenses which were useless, or injurious to morality and health.

The benefits of association and insurance, or rather insurance by means of association, have been revealed to him by the means of friendly societies, which, for a small weekly sum, promise, and really give him, if they are well managed, besides medical assistance gratis, help in money during the whole, or a part, of his illness, and for an additional sum, an annuity when the age for retiring has arrived.

The same feelings of foresight decide him to defer a marriage which would not be justified by the possibility

of facing, with the united earnings of the labour of the pair, the requirements of a family, of which the various expenses can never be exactly foreseen.

Hence a sensible diminution in the number of those premature unions of which the consequences weighed so sadly formerly on the future of the parents and the children, all falling victims to inevitable poverty.

Thus being in a better position with regard to economy and health, he preserves his strength longer, that is, his power to work; and in extending by this means the active period of his life, he gains, with the duration of the services he renders to society, the means to encounter the period of forced repose. Hence a notable increase in the average length of life in France, especially in the lower classes, an increase demonstrated by the remarkable fact that the law of mortality determined by the celebrated Table of Deparcieux for chosen lives at the end of the seventeenth and beginning of the eighteenth centuries, is no longer applicable to-day to the common workman who makes an investment in the "Caisse d'Assurance" against old age.

Again, the development of the manufacturing industries, notwithstanding its serious drawbacks, certainly has the advantage that it permits the utilization of the work of the female and of children at an early age, so that all the family unite in working for the common weal.

This participation of the woman in the creation of the modest income of the family, and this utilization of all the active strength of the family, are facilitated now by the "crèche" and the "salle d'asile," which enable the mother to separate for a time from her child without danger to its health or security. It is also assisted by the "ouvroirs," which give the young girl, nearly gratuitously, the professional education of which later, as a wife or a mother, she will make use in seconding the labour of her husband.

We must not omit the resources of public charity more abundant, more judiciously distributed, more efficacious, than at any other period. Our hospitals more vast, more airy, less unhealthy than of old, receive a greater number of sick without exposing them to the inconvenience or the danger of overcrowding. The treatment, the regimen, the care, continue to improve

without a pause, thanks to the control of the superior authority, the vigilance of local authority. Let us add that for some years visiting the sick at home has been practised with a success which a longer and more widespread trial will perhaps confirm. Who knows but that the increasing prosperity of our hospitals may not some day furnish them with sufficient means to establish convalescent homes on the model of those at Paris and of some of the same description in the outskirts of London.

The refuges have had their share in the improvement arrived at in the hospitals. Their doors are, moreover, thrown open more freely to invalids of the artizan class, who find in them all the care due to advanced age or infirmity.

Private charity is at least equal to public charity, and it was, perhaps, never more ingenious and more varied in its application than at present. It is impossible to measure the amount of self-sacrifice it gives rise to, or the number of the unfortunate that it assists, either by personal contact or through the intervention of the charitable societies, which divide amongst them the task of alleviating the numberless forms of human distress.

Finally, the rapidity and the cheapness of the new means of communication have also contributed to the improvement of the material condition of the workman, by enabling him to go wherever work is most wanted and best paid.

In case of necessity, the means of transport furnish him with a resource almost unknown heretofore, the last resource of emigration."

This review of the condition of the working-classes is drawn up with an optimist view to be expected from an official Report, but it is useful as containing an enumeration of the various component elements which must be taken into consideration in an attempt to form an estimate of the real value of wages received.

Wages in Paris in 1853, 1860, and 1869.

1. Artificial flower makers.
2. Bakers.
3. Blacksmiths.
4. Brickmakers.
5. Boot and shoemakers.
6. Butchers.
7. Cabinetmakers.
8. Carpenters.
9. Charcoal makers.
10. Coopers.
11. Coppersmiths.
12. Dressmakers.
13. Embroiderers.
14. Farriers.
15. Gardeners.
16. Hatters.
17. Jewellers and goldsmiths.
18. Joiners.
19. Limeburners.
20. Masons.
21. Milliners.
22. Painters.
23. Porkbutchers.
24. Printers.
25 Quarrymen.
26. Ropemakers.
27. Sawyers.
28. Sempstresses.
29. Staymakers.
30. Stonecutters.
31. Tailors.
32. Tilers.
33. Tinmen.
34. Upholsterers.
35. Washerwomen.
36. Watchmakers.
37. Weavers.
38. Wheelwrights.

(1.)—Artificial Flower Makers.

	Ordinary Daily Wages without Board.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Frs. c.	*s. d.*	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	Fr. c.	*s. d.*
Women	4 0	3 2½	2 0	1 7¼	2 50 to 3 0	2 0 to 2 4¾
Men..	..	..	..	..	5 0	4 0

In this trade no less than six persons are employed on the manufacture of each flower, one person to each part; the stem, the cutting out, the colouring, the stamping, the pasting, and the setting. Some manufacturers make only roses or other special flowers, some only foliage. In 1860 the trade at Paris employed 7,381 persons, of whom 787 were men. They work twelve hours a-day, with one hour for meals.

(2).—Bakers.

	Ordinary Daily Wages of the Workman.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	Fr. c.	*s d.*
Baker	4 0	3 2½	5 0	4 0	5 50	4 4¾
1st Assistant	3 50	2 9½	..	..	5 50	4 4¾
2nd Assistant	3 0	2 4¾	..	..	4 50	4 7¼

The wages are paid on the completion of seven batches; additional batches are paid over and above.

Bakeries making less than seven pay the same as others on the termination of work. A loaf of 1 kilogramme (2lbs. $3\frac{1}{5}$ oz.) is given in addition to each baker, and 20 centimes' worth ($1\frac{3}{4}d.$) of white wine.

In 1860 there were in Paris—

	25	bakers employing	more than 10 workmen.
892	„	„	from 2 to 10 workmen.
13	„	„	1, or working alone.
Total .. 930	„	„	3,355 workmen.

The man who carries the bread to the consumers is paid from 2 francs 50 centimes (2*s.*) to 5 francs (4*s.*), according to the job, daily; women, of whom a few are employed in this way, 1 franc ($9\frac{3}{4}d.$) less.

(3.)—Blacksmiths.

	Ordinary Daily Wages without Board.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	Fr. c.	*s. d.*
Blacksmith	5 0	4 0	4 0 to 5 0	3 $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 0	5 50 to 8 0	4 $4\frac{3}{4}$ to 6 $4\frac{3}{4}$
Striker	4 0	3 $2\frac{1}{2}$	..	..	3 3 to 4 0	2 $4\frac{3}{4}$ to 3 $2\frac{1}{2}$
Filer	..	..	..	..	3 0 to 4 50	2 $4\frac{3}{4}$ to 3 $7\frac{1}{4}$

Apprentices in this trade work for four years if boarded by their masters, and for three years if they are not boarded. There were 1,089 blacksmiths at Paris in 1860.

(4.)—Brickmakers.

	Ordinary Daily Wages of a Brickmaker.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	Frs.	*s. d.*	Fr. c.	*s. d.*
Moulders (making 2,000 at 4 francs (3*s.* $2\frac{1}{2}d.$) the 1,000)	8 0	6 $4\frac{3}{4}$	3 to 5	2 $4\frac{3}{4}$ to 4 0	3 50 to 6 0	2 $9\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 $9\frac{1}{2}$
Carriers, helps to the moulders, and paid by them 1 fr. 25 c. (1*s.*) the 1,000..	2 50	2 0				
Men who put the bricks into the forms..	5 0	4 0				
Men employed in drying the bricks at 1 fr. 10 c. ($10\frac{1}{2}d.$) the 100 ..	4 50	3 $7\frac{1}{4}$				
Brick polishers	4 0	3 $2\frac{1}{2}$				
Waggon drawers (the hour)	0 40	0 $3\frac{3}{4}$				
Diggers	0 35	0 $3\frac{1}{4}$				

The carriers and helpers are young men of 15 or 16. There are no apprentices at Paris for this trade. Tiles are only made in the distant suburbs on a small scale; the trade is principally supplied from Burgundy. The number of persons employed in Paris in 1860 was composed as follows:—

Men	955
Women.	10
Lads under 16	67
	1,032

The day's work is twelve hours; 6 to 6 in summer and 8 to 8 in winter.

(5.)—Boot and Shoe Makers.

	Ordinary Daily Wages of the Workman without Board.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Frs. c.	*s. d.*	Frs. c.	*s. d.*	Frs. c.	*s. d.*
Superior work	3 0	2 $4\frac{3}{4}$	5 0	4 0	6 50	5 $2\frac{1}{2}$
Common work.. ..	2 50	2 0	4 0	3 $2\frac{1}{2}$	5 0	4 0

The wages vary a great deal in this trade, but it may be safely said that at present no shoemaker makes less than 4 francs (3*s.* $2\frac{3}{8}$*d.*) a-day, or more than 10 francs (8*s.*); and of course the latter sum is only given in rare cases to exceedingly skilled workmen. Those who receive the higher wages work fifteen or sixteen hours a-day. There are very few apprentices at Paris. In 1860 the trade employed 18,082 persons, They nearly all come from the provinces or from abroad, which accounts for the small number of apprentices (220).

(6.)—Butchers.

Butchers in the Shop.	Ordinary Wages with Board.					
	1853.			1860.	1869.	
	A-week. Francs.	A-week. £ *s. d.*			A-month. Francs.	A-month. £ *s.*
1st	15 to 40	0 15 0 to 1 2 0	..	..	130 to 200	5 4 to 8 0
2nd	6 20	0 4 $9\frac{3}{4}$ to 0 16 0	..	..	60 70	2 8 to 2 16
3rd	3 6	0 2 $4\frac{3}{4}$ to 0 4 $9\frac{3}{4}$	..	..	30 40	1 4 to 1 12

The first and second butchers are equally employed at the shop and at the slaughter-house. Their real wages are, in fact, derived from the latter in consequence of certain profits granted to them by the master on each head killed. They are, as it were, piece workmen; and the master has only to give a small sum at the end of the week to complete the amount due to them. The wholesale butchers' men number about 100 at Paris. Their duties are the most onerous in the trade. The third butcher in the list is, in fact, the apprentice. Young men strong enough to do the work usually come to an employer without a contract and leave him in a month or two on finding higher wages. In 1860 there were 1,132 master butchers at Paris, employing 2,697 persons, including 92 women, and 89 lads under 16. The day's work begins at 4 in the morning and ends at 6 P.M. The butchers mostly live with their employers and contract orderly and economical habits. They are nearly all members of friendly and annuity societies.

(7.)—CABINET MAKERS.

	Ordinary Daily Wages without Board.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	Fr. c.	*s. d.*
Workmen	3 50	2 9½	5 0	4 0	5 50	4 4¾
First-class workmen ..	..	..	..	..	9 to 10fr.	7 2½ to 8 0

There were 7,951 workmen in Paris in 1860 employed in cabinet making; among them there were 46 women and 589 apprentices. The wages ran to a considerable height for skilled workmen,—71 received 10 francs (8*s.*) a-day, and 13, 12 francs (9*s.* 7¼*d.*) They work thirteen hours a-day, and usually do nothing on Monday.

(8.)—CARPENTERS.

	Ordinary Daily Wages without Board.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	Fr. c.	*s. d.*
Journeyman Carpenters ..	5 0	4 0	5 0	4 0	6 0	4 9½

In 1860 there were 5,015 carpenters at Paris of whom 3,503 gained 5 francs (4*s.*) a-day. In the winter they

are paid by the hour. They work 12 hours a-day in summer, and during daylight in winter, when they are paid by the hour, and only take one hour for meals. They are, as a body, well conducted, and generally belong to provident societies.

(9.)—Charcoal (Artificial).

	Ordinary Wages of a Workman per Day without Board.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.
Artificial Charcoal Workman	3 0	2 4¾	3 0	2 4¾	4 50	3 7¼

Charcoal-burners do not exist in the Department of the Seine. The only industry in charcoal is that known as "Charbon de Paris," composed of charcoal-dust, the residue of coke and turf, old wood from the ships, carbonized vegetable substances, &c., all mixed together and made into cakes for burning. They have come into very general use on account of the great heat they emit without smoke or smell. The trade employed 330 workmen in 1860.

(10.)—Coopers.

	Ordinary Daily Wages without Board.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	£ s. d.
Cooper	3 50	2 9½	4 0	2 2¾	5 0	0 4 0
					40 0 a-month lodged and boarded.	1 12 0
Wine Bottler	..	..	..	..		

In 1860, 337 master coopers at Paris employed 512 men and 53 apprentices. The workmen are recruited from Burgundy, Alsace, Lorraine, and Germany.

(11.)—Coppersmiths.

	Ordinary Daily Wages without Board.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr.	s. d.	c. c.	s. d.
Coppersmiths, steam boilers or kitchen utensils ..	4 50	3 7½	4 to 5	3 2½ to 4 0	50 to 60 an hour	0 4¾ to 0 8¾
Working at home ..	..	..	..	..	..	0 5¾ to 0 6¾

In 1860 Paris contained 45 manufactories of steam-boilers and 204 of kitchen utensils, employing 2,254 workmen, an increase of 956 on the number in 1849.

(12).—Dressmakers.

	Ordinary Daily Wages without Board.					
	1863.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.
Cutters (tailleuses et appreteuses) ..	..	..	..	..	2 50 to 3 0	2 0 to 2 4¾
Mounters (monteuses et soutacheuses) ..	2 50 to 3 0	2 0 to 2 4¾	2 0 to 2 50	1 7¼ to 2 0	2 0 to 2 25	1 7¼ to 1 9¾
Sewers.. ..	..	..	..	..	1 50 to 2 25	1 2½ to 1 9¾
Head workwoman in great establishments.	..	..	..	..	100 0 a-month.	£4

In 1860, 5191 persons were employed in Paris in dressmaking, of whom 3,970 were women, 1,214 girls under 16, and 7 men. Of this number, 1,115 women received from 1 franc to 1 franc 75 centimes a-day ($9\frac{3}{4}d.$ to $1s.\ 4\frac{3}{4}d.$); 2,298, from 2 francs ($1s.\ 7\frac{1}{4}d.$) to 2 francs 50 centimes ($2s.$); 537, from 2 francs 75 centimes ($2s.\ 2\frac{1}{2}d.$) to 5 francs ($4s.$); 19, 6 francs ($4s.\ 9\frac{1}{2}d.$); and 1, 10 francs ($8s.$) The wages they receive appear to have remained absolutely stationary.

(13.)—Embroiderers (Female.)

	Ordinary Daily Wages of the Workwoman without Board.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.
By the day	1 75	1 4¾	2 0	1 7¼	3 0 to 4 0	2 4¾ to 3 2½
By the piece	..	..	..	..	5 0 working 15 hours.	4 0
In gold and silver ..	5 0	4 0	..	..	..	..

The workwomen employed in shops are engaged either by the day or the piece, sometimes they are lodged. There is work for them all the year round. In 1860 there were 1,771 embroiderers, of whom 78 were men, and 63 under 16 years of age.

(14).—Farriers.

	Ordinary Daily Wages without Board.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	£ s. d.
Workmen within the old barriers of Paris ..	3 65	2 1½	4 0 to 4 50	3 2½ to 3 7¼	36 0 a-week	1 8 9½
Workmen outside the old barriers	..	..	..	..	26 0 to 30 0 a-week	1 0 9½ to 1 4 0

In the outskirts of Paris the farriers are frequently lodged and fed. There were 165 master farriers in 1860 employing 561 workmen. They usually work 11½ hours, with two hours for meals

(15.)—Gardeners.

	Ordinary Daily Wages without Board.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.
Market gardeners ..	2 0	1 7½	3 0	2 4⅔	3 50 to 4 50	2 9½ to 3 7½
Flower gardeners ..	2 0	1 7½	..	..	4 0 to 6 0	3 2½ to 4 9½
Nursery gardeners ..	2 0	1 7½	..	..	3 50 to 5 50	2 9½ to 4 4¾

In 1860 there were in Paris 386 gardeners employed by 338 gardeners selling the produce of their gardens. The hours of labour are very variable. In summer they generally work 15 hours a day.

(16.)—Hatters.

	Ordinary Daily Wages without Board.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.
Finishers	5 0	4 0	..	..	8 0 to 10 0	6 4¾ to 8 0
Mounters	3 50	2 9½	5 0	4 0	6 0 to 8 0	4 9½ to 6 4¾
Ordinary workman ..	2 0	1 7¼	..	..	4 0 to 4 50	3 2½ to 3 7¼
Workwomen	..	..	2 50 to 3 0	2 0 to 2 4⅔	2 50 to 3 0	2 0 to 2 4¾

The workmen in this trade gain exceptionally high wages, but they reduce themselves to the common level by doing no work on Sunday, of course, but also on Monday, and often on Tuesday, and even Wednesday. The rate at which they make money is given as follows by a master hatter:—1 franc on Monday and Tuesday, 2 francs on Wednesday, 4 francs on Thursday, 5 francs on Friday, and 15 francs on Saturday, pay-day; the work on this day being often ill done on account of the pace at which it is hurried through. The workmen nearly all work by the piece, and are members of a union to resist apprenticeship in their trade. In 1860 there were 2,114 men and 1,151 women.

(17.)—Jewellers and Goldsmiths.

Trade.	Ordinary Daily Wages of the Workman.							
	1853.		1860.		1869.			
	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.		
Jeweller	4 50	3 7½	5 0	4 0	6 0	4 9¾		
Goldsmith	4 0	3 2½	5 0	4 0	..	..		

The apprentices are nearly always boarded. A premium is exacted by employers only in first-class houses; its amount is not established by rule, but is a matter of discussion between the employer and the parents. Workmen's wages vary considerably in these two trades on account of the numerous branches which they embrace, such as cutters, stampers, engravers, chasers, polishers, setters, burnishers, mounters, &c. In 1860 the two trades included 18,731 workers.

(18.)—Joiners.

	Ordinary Daily Wages without Board.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.	c.	d.
Common workman ..	3 35	2 8	4 25 to 4 50	3 4¾ to 3 7¼	50 an hour.	4¾ an hour.
Skilled workman ..	4 0	3 2½			55 to 60 an hour.	5¼ to 5¾ an hour.

In 1860 there were 8,972 joiners engaged in the house-building trade, and 7,951 in the furniture making. Skilled labour in the latter is very well paid, nearly 1,000 workmen receiving 6 francs (4*s.* 9½*d.*) and upwards to 12 francs (9*s.* 7¼*d.*) daily. They work 10 hours a day in winter and 12 hours insummer.

(19.)—Lime Burners.

	Ordinary Daily Wages without Board.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.
Workmen	5 0	4 0	..	..	5 0	4 0
Labourers	3 50	2 9½	..	..	3 50	2 9½

Lime-burners occupied in baking bricks are lodged and warmed, on account of the severe nature of their work. There are no apprentices in this trade.

(20.)—Masons.

	Ordinary Daily Wages without Board.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s.	Fr. c.	s. d.
Masons	4 50	3 7¼	5 0	4 0	5 50 and 55 for extra hours.	4 4¾ 0 5¼
Plasterers.. ..	3 0	2 4¾	..	..	4 50 and 55 for extra hours.	3 7⅛ 0 5¼
Unskilled labour ..	2 75	2 2½	3 0 to 3 25	2 4¾ 2 7¼	3 50 and 45 for extra hours.	2 9½ 0 4½

In 1860, 70,000 persons were employed in Paris in trades connected with building. Of this 70,000, 31,676 were masons, 8,000 of whom made from 3 francs (2*s.* 4¾*d.*) to 3 francs 25 centimes (2*s.* 7¼*d.*), and 6,700 received 5 francs (4*s.*) a-day. About half the whole number could read and write.

(21.)—Milliners.

	Ordinary Wages.					
	1853.		1860.		1869	
	Fr.	s. d.	Fr.	s. d.	Fr.	s. d.
Workwoman—1st class.	1,000 to 12,000	40 0 to 48 0	..	..	1,000 to 1,200 a-year with board.	40 0 to 48 0
2nd class ..	800	32 0	200 to 250	..	600 to 800 a-year with board.	24 0 to 32 0
3rd class. ..	..	..	..	..	400 to 600 a-year with board.	16 0 to 24 0
4th class or apprentices.	..	..	..	..	boarded	boarded

There were 919 milliners in Paris in 1860, occupying 2,745 workwomen, 79 men, 528 children under 16 years of age. The apprentices receive no wages, and are boarded; some of them pay their employers from 100 francs (4*l.*) to 400 francs (16*l.*) a-year.

(22.)—Painters.

	Ordinary Daily Wages without Board.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	Fr. c.	*s. d.*
House Painters . .	4 0	3 2½	4 50 to 5 0	3 7¾ to 4 0	6 0	4 9¾

Those who gained more than 5 francs (4*s.*) in 1860 were painters engaged in sign-painting and lettering. Those who gained less than 4 francs (3*s.* 2½*d.*) were youths who had just finished their apprenticeship, or old men. There were 6,147 painters employed by 989 masters.

(23.)—Pork Butchers.

	Ordinary Daily Wages with Board.							
	1853.			1860.		1869.		
	Fr. c.	£ *s. d.*		Fr. c.	*s. d.*			
1st Assistant . .	45 0 to 55 0	1 16 0 to 2 4 0		1 50	1 2½	50 to 60 frs. a-month with board, lodging, and washing, and 20 to 30 frs. given as a present.	2*l.* to 2*l.* 8*s.* a-month with board, lodging, and washing, and 16*s.* to 1*l.* 4*s.* given as a present.	
2nd Assistant . .	25 0 to 35 0	1 0 0 to 1 8 0		1 0	0 10			
3rd Assistant . .	15 0 to 25 0	0 12 0 to 1 0 0		..	..			

This trade is of a more extended nature than that of the English pork-butcher. All sorts of preserved meats, patés, forced vegetables, and seasonable delicacies, are sold at the charcutiers. In 1860 there were 1,243 persons engaged in the trade. The men are classed as first and second assistant, according to their physical strength; they receive small presents in money from buyers, and work 13 hours a day. The women, of whom there are 144, remain at the counter till midnight.

(24.)—PRINTERS.

	Ordinary Daily Wages without Board.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.
Compositors—						
Piece workmen ..	4 0	3 2½	5 0	4 0	50 to 60c. the 1,000 letters	0 4¾ to 0 5¾
Day workmen ..	..	..	..	..	5 0 to 6 0	4 0 to 4 9¾
Page setters	..	..	..	..	6 0 to 8 0	4 9¾ to 6 4¾
Printers	..	..	..	..	6 0 to 7 0	4 9¾ to 5 7¼
Steam printing—						
Conducteurs ..	..	..	..	..	6 0 to 7 0	4 9¾ to 5 7¼
Margeurs	3 0	2 4¾	..	..	3 0 to 4 0	2 4¾ to 3 2½
Receveurs de feuilles ..	1 50	1 2½	..	..	2 50	2 0

In 1860 there were 84 printing establishments at Paris, occupying 5,308 workmen, 408 women and 442 boys,—total 6,158; 378 of them did no work on Mondays. In large establishments it is the habit to keep back 25 centimes (2½*d.*) a-week on the wages to form a reserve fund in case of sickness.

(25.)—QUARRYMEN.

	Ordinary Daily Wages without Board.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.
Labourers (working by the piece)	..	..	..	..	3 50	2 9¾
Quarrymen	3 0	2 4¾	3 75	3 0	4 50	3 7¼
Miners	..	..	..	..	5 0 to 6 0	4 0 to 4 9¾

This was one of the poorest trades, but, in consequence of the great amount of building going on in Paris, it has improved of late years. In the year 1845 the product was 486,900 cubic metres, valued at 74,560*l.*, in 1859 it rose to 1,464,000 cubic metres, representing the value of 366,200*l.* Besides the stone found in the department the rough stone in the demolished houses is

also used in building, as well as the best stone from other parts of the country. In 1860 there were 238 quarrymen.

(26.)—Rope Makers.

	Ordinary Daily Wages without Board.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	Fr. c.	*s. d.*
Rope makers.. ..	3 0	2 $4\frac{3}{4}$	4 0	3 $2\frac{1}{4}$	0 40 the hour.	0 $3\frac{3}{4}$

The rope-walks being in the open air, rain and cold winter days interfere with the work, reducing the daily average of wages to 3 francs 50 centimes (2*s.* $9\frac{1}{2}$*d.*) There were 527 ropemakers in Paris in 1860, of whom 159 worked by the day, and 243 by the piece.

(27.)—Sawyers.

	Ordinary Daily Wages.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	Fr. c.	*s. d.*
Common workmen ..	2 25 to 3 0	1 $9\frac{3}{4}$ to 2 $4\frac{3}{4}$	4 0	3 $2\frac{1}{2}$	4 0 to 5 0	3 $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 0

Steam-sawing machines had greatly diminished the wages in this trade in 1853; but since then they appear to have recovered. In 1860, there were 883 sawyers at Paris, 157 sawing-yards, and 72 steam-sawing machines.

(28.)—Sempstresses.

	Ordinary Daily Wages without Board.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	Fr. c.	*s. d.*
Common sempstress ..	0 75 to 1 0	0 $7\frac{1}{4}$ to 0 0			1 50 to 2 0	1 $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 $7\frac{1}{4}$
Sempstress in fine linen ..	1 0 to 2 0	0 $9\frac{3}{4}$ to 1 $7\frac{1}{4}$	2 0	1 $7\frac{1}{4}$	2 0 to 2 50	1 $7\frac{1}{4}$ to 2 0
Sempstresses working in their own homes.	1 0 to 2 0	0 $9\frac{3}{4}$ to 1 $7\frac{1}{4}$			3 50 to 4 0	2 $9\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 $2\frac{1}{2}$

The wages of women have not risen in Paris for a great number of years. It is a sad fact, that it is hardly possible for them to live by their wages alone.

(29.)—Stay Makers.

	Ordinary Daily Wages without Board.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.
Workwoman	2 0	1 7¼	2 0	1 7¼	2 50 to 3 0	2 0 to 2 4¾

The number of staymakers in Paris in 1860, was 2,254, of whom 197 were men. In 1849, the number was 2,968; the decrease of 714 is accounted for by the introduction of sewing-machines. French stays are exported in large quantities, especially to South America.

(30.)—Stonecutters.

	Ordinary Daily Wages without Board.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.
1st Class workmen—						
By the piece ..	7 0	5 1¼	..	..	8 0	6 4¾
By the day	..	..	..	..	6 0	4 9¾
Ordinary workmen—						
By the piece ..	..	..	..	..	5 0 to 6 0	4 0 to 4 9¾
By the day	4 50	3 7¼	..	..	5 0 to 5 50	4 0 to 4 4¾

There is no special account of stone-cutters in the Work of the Chamber of Commerce, though the art has attained high perfection in the modern buildings of Paris. They appear to be included under the head "Ornemanistes," which embraces all workmen engaged in the decoration of houses, whether in stone, marble, stucco, or papier maché.

(31.)—Tailors.

	Ordinary Daily Wages without Board.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.
Workmen by the day ..	3 0 to 3 50	2 4⅝ to 2 9¾	4 0 to 5 0	3 2½ to 4 0	4 0 to 4 50	3 2½ to 3 7½
,, by the piece ..	3 50	2 9¾	..	..	6 0	4 9¾
Cutters in 1st class houses	..	..	..	..	7 0	5 7¼

In 1860 there were in Paris 3,468 master tailors, divided thus :—3,046 tailors to measure, 265 ready-made clothes tailors, and 157 old clothes dealers. They employed 6,849 men, 3,383 women, and 39 boys; total of employed, 10,271. They mostly learn their trade in the provinces, and only come to Paris when they work well enough to make over 3 francs (2*s.* 4¾*d.*) a-day.

(32.)—Tilers.

	Ordinary Daily Wages without Board.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	Fr. c.	*s. d.*
Workman	6 0	4 9½	6 0	4 9½	6 0	4 9½
Lad	4 0	3 2½	..	..	4 0	3 2½

The wages in this trade appear to have been singularly high in 1853. The day's work of a tiler is only nine hours, the time occupied in going to and from work being considered as part of the day's labour. In 1860 there were 3,597 tilers in Paris.

(33.)—Tinmen.

	Ordinary Daily Wages without Board.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	Fr. c.	*s. d.*
Workman	4 50	3 7¼	4 0	3 2½	5 0	4 0

Manufactures in tin and zinc employed 1,539 men in Paris in 1860. They work twelve hours a-day, taking two hours for meals; 310 did not work on Mondays.

(34.)—Upholsterers.

	Ordinary Wages without Board.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	Fr. c.	*s. d.*
Foreman	..	..	..	..	8 0 to 10 0	..
Workman	2 0 to 5 0	1 7¼ to 4 0	4 0 to 5 0	4 0	4 0 to 8 0	..
Workwoman	..	..	..	..	2 0 to 4 0	..

In 1860 there were in Paris 580 upholsterers, employing—

Men	1,805
Women	1,589
Apprentices	197
Total	3,591

1,116 of these received from 5 francs (4*s.*), to 6 francs (4*s.* 9¾*d.*) a-day.

(35.)—Washerwomen.

	Ordinary Daily Wages.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	Fr. c.	*s. d.*
Washerwoman.. ..	2 50	2 0	2 50	2 0	3 0	2 4¾
Ironing woman. ..	2 25	1 9¾	..	..	2 50 to 3 0	2 0 to 2 4¾

The Report of 1863 on salaries remarks, that the wages in this trade have not varied for twenty years; and the slight increase between 1853 and 1869, shows how sturdily it has resisted the surrounding changes. In 1860, it employed 9,574 persons, of whom 55 were men engaged in carrying the linen round. It is usual to give the washerwomen soup, or a glass of wine, or most often a small glass of brandy. They work eleven hours a-day.

(36.)—Watchmakers.

	Ordinary Daily Wages without Board.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	Fr. c.	*s. d.*	Fr. c.	*s. d.*
Watchmakers working at their employers ..	4 50	3 7¼	5 0	4 0	5 0 to 6 0	4 0 to 4 9½
Watchmakers on their own account . ..	..	..	..	..	6 0 to 8 0	4 9½ to 6 4¾

In 1860 there were 2,386 working watchmakers in Paris, of whom 23 received only 3 francs (2*s.* 4¾*d.*) a-day, and 6 received 12 francs (9*s.* 7¼*d.*) a-day. The average cost of the lodging for task workmen, was 304 francs (12*l.* 3*s.* 2½*d.*)

(37.)—Weavers.

	Ordinary Daily Wages without Board.					
	1853.		1860.		1869.	
	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.
Shawl and carpet weavers.	4 0 to 4 50	3 2½ to 3 7¼	4 0	3 2½	6 0 to 7 0	4 9¾ to 5 7¼
Cloth weavers	..	..	..	..	3 0 to 7 0	2 4¾ to 5 7¼

2,488 weavers were employed in Paris in 1860, of whom 682 were women; of the latter, 209 received 2 francs (1*s.* 7¼*d.*) a-day, and 240, 1 franc 50 centimes (9¾*d.* to 1*s.* 2½*d.*).

(38.)—Wheelrights.

	Ordinary Daily Wages without Boord.					
	1853.		1860.		1860.	
	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.	Fr. c.	s. d.
Workmen for carts, omnibuses, and railway waggons.	3 0 to 5 0	2 4¾ to 4 0	4 0 to 5 0	3 2½ to 4 0	4 50 to 5 50	3 7¼ to 4 4¾
Workmen for driving carriages.					4 50 to 6 0	3 7¼ to 4 9½

In 1860 there were 1,089 wheelwrights, including 14 lads under 16 years of age; in 1849 there were only 778; 862 are journeymen, 213 work by the piece. Time of work twelve hours, two hours for meals.

Section IV.—Houses and Lodgings of the Industrial Classes in Paris.

Workmen were formerly to be found in every part of the capital. In the lofty houses on the Boulevards, the lower floors were occupied by the wealthy classes, while the upper floors were inhabited by the poor; and this distribution of the working classes throughout Paris doubtless gave them great advantages in the popular tumults which have changed the fortunes of the country.

Demolitions at Paris.

The complete demolition of whole quarters has very

much altered this state of things; for the last twenty years thousands of the working classes have gained their bread by demolishing their old haunts, and in the support of Republicanism, are the practical opponents of the system by which they live. The work of rebuilding has furnished labour in a degree unknown before the Empire. In the year 1867, no less than 3,867 houses were constructed, and 1,764 pulled down. The statistics furnished by the Prefecture of the Seine, record a large increase in the number of apartments consequent on the alterations. They state that 11,141 were destroyed, and 25,601 built; but despite figures, the fact is patent, that the workman has been driven from the centres which he loved, to the suburbs, which he can only reach at a considerable expense of time or of money.

Government attempts to provide lodgings for workmen.

To compensate for this displacement several ranges of buildings have been erected on the outskirts of the City, but it would appear that the doubtful success which has attended buildings erected in London for the special benefit of the artizan classes, has found its counterpart in Paris in those buildings which have in like manner been erected not as speculations but as boons. So long ago as 1849, a "Cité Ouvrière" was built in the Rue Rochechouart. It soon got the name of "Barrack," and fell into disrepute; others have been built since then on the Boulevard Mazas, at the Batignolles and at the Rue Montreuil. The Emperor has erected fifty houses in the Avenue Daumesnil, the characteristic feature of which consists in there being only one apartment on each flat, so that the families are separated from each other. They have been presented by His Majesty to a co-operative society formed for the purpose of enabling its members to become proprietors' at the end of a certain time, of the apartments they occupy.

A society of an analogous nature has been recently started under the title of "l'Epargne Immobilière." Its members may be either "Associés Locataires" or "Associés Capitalistes," according to their wish either to become proprietors or merely to receive interest for their money. The scheme, which was advocated by M. Jules Simon and M. Laboulaye, has started under favourable auspices, being under the direction of

M. Cohadon, whose sagacious management has already brought prosperity to other co-operative ventures.*

Model Cité constructed by by Madame Jouffroy Renault.

A set of buildings has been erected by Madame Jouffroy Renault at Clichy la Garenne rather more than $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles from the centre of Paris. It consists of separate houses on either side of a broad street from which they are divided by a frontage of garden. They are of different size, containing from two to four rooms with a cellar and loft, and are two stories in height.

The Report of the Jury of the Exhibition of 1867,† approves the design of these houses, and, with regard to the simplicity of their construction, says, "It was, it is true, necessary to keep the prime cost of each house within a limit which would enable them to be let at a rent not above that usually paid by families of the industrial class, and the principal merit of Madame Jouffroy Renault's scheme is in doing so. This cost for average houses, that is to say, for houses with a frontage of 17 feet 6 inches by 18 feet in depth, is 192*l.*, including ground and garden, expenses of purchase and proportional share of the general outlay of the Cité, such as land lost in laying out the street, road-making, gutters, sideways and other matters of general utility.

Under these circumstances a yearly sum of 117 francs (4*l.* 13*s.* $7\frac{1}{4}$*d.*), funded for fifteen years, would enable the lodger at the end of this period to become proprietor of the house in which he lives, and it is for transactions of this nature that the houses of the Cité Jouffroy Renault are intended. By adding to this sum of 117 francs (4*l.* 13*s.* $7\frac{1}{4}$*d.*) another sum of 264 francs (10*l.* 11*s.* $2\frac{1}{2}$*d.*), representing the interest of the capital at $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., a total of 381 francs (15*l.* 4*s.* $9\frac{3}{4}$*d.*) is obtained for the annual rent, or about 32 francs (1*l.* 5*s.* $7\frac{1}{4}$*d.*) a month, and although this is rather more than a common workman can afford out of his daily wages, still it is certainly very moderate considering the advantages with regard to convenience of arrangement and to health and comfort which such dwellings offer to the families who occupy them. It need hardly be said that the $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on

* The progress of the co-operative movement in France was reported on by Mr. Fane, Secretary of Embassy, in 1867. The Report was printed and presented to Parliament.

† Vol. 15, page 912.

the capital received by Madame Jouffroy Renault bears the burthen of all the rates and taxes, of the expense of the general lighting and supply of water, lodging and wages of the porter, repairs for fifteen years other than internal repairs ("réparations locatives"), and when these contingent expenses are subtracted there remains hardly 3½ per cent. of net revenue for Madame Jouffroy Renault."

The following account* of a Cité for workmen in a populous part of Paris is important as showing what may be done in building with a view to profit without Government assistance or private charity :—

Cité for workmen in a populous part of Paris.

"In the quarter of the town lying beyond the canal, termed in Paris 'Deshérité,' on the locality lying beyond Chateau d'Eau above the canal between the Rue St. Maur, the Rue de la Chopinette and the Rue de Brusso St. Louis, that is to say about five minutes walk from the market of the Boulevard du Temple, M. le Comte Adolph de Madre has erected a series of workmen's dwellings—eighty-eight houses containing 4,000 separate apartments. The area of the site is 35,600 square metres. The houses are of three and four stories with outbuildings and workshops insected by passages 200 metres in length and presenting a façade of 1,981 metres. Every 30 metres is a gas lamp. The capital returns a net interest of 6½ per cent. The price paid was 4*l.* the 100 metres, and the average rent was 4*l.* annually the room. The rent of the dearest apartments consisting of three rooms and a kitchen was 10*l.* 8*s.* 4*d.* Most of them consisting of two rooms and a kitchen are let for 8*l.* 8*s.* 4*d.* We subjoin the details of expenditure and receipts supplied by the courtesy of the Comte de Madre :—House built on a plot of 216 square metres, with a façade of 1½ metres, including an area built on 121·6 square metres with an interior court yard of 94·5 square metres.

	£	*s.*	*d.*
"Land, at 4*l.* the square metre	864	0	0
Constructions, at 10*l.* 3*s.* 8½*d.* the metre ..	1,234	4	2
Paving yard, at 6*s.* 10*d.* the metre	26	3	4
Gas and water supply	20	0	0
	2,144	7	6

* From a newspaper of 1866.

Receipts.

Rent, ground-floor, 15 francs the metre ..		56	0 0
Three floors, at 9 francs the metre, and per floor		114	8 4
Gross income		170	8 4

Expenditure.	£	*s.*	*d.*	
Taxes	7	0	0	
Insurance	0	2	6	
Gas	1	12	6	
Water	4	0	0	
Emptying night soil ..	2	8	4	
Repairs and losses ..	12	0	0	
Porter	4	0	0	
				31 3 4
Net profits				139 5 0

Equal to 6½ per cent. upon the capital invested."

At present the highest price paid for apartments in this Cité is 350 francs (14*l.*) a year, and the lowest 200 francs (8*l.*) There are single rooms without fireplaces to let at 100 francs (4*l.*) The same prices prevail for lodgings of the working classes all over Paris, but the accommodation in proportion to the price becomes better as the distance from the centre increases.

Causes of the ill success of Government schemes to provide lodgings for workmen.

M. Audiganne, in his "Population Ouvrières,"* ascribes the ill-success of the Cités Ouvrières to the characters of the workmen. "I have," he says, "a hundred times had occasion to convince myself that the feelings of the masses do not harmonize with these institutions. The repugnance of the working population does not arise from ignorance of the advantages promised, consisting in material benefits easily understood and widely published. Every time I spoke to workmen on the subject I found them well aware of the promises made. Their minds none the less stubbornly refused to give the work their wished for adhesion. A Cité which brings into close contact a large number of families placed under exactly the same conditions, which generalizes the use of all sorts of interior arrangements, requires, in addition to the provisions of the law concerning the relations of landlord and lodger, a special code of regulations. If, as must be the case, the lodgers are very numerous, these rules must be severe. This it is which displeases the artizans. 'We leave the factory,' they say, 'where we are under the

* Vol. II, page 315.

control of indispensable regulations. We have there masters and foremen. We are subject to fines, and then on getting home we should find more regulations stuck upon our door, trammeling our most private acts. We should have, in the superintendents of the Cité, more overseers. We should not be masters in our own homes.'"

This longing for independence acts in another way to frustrate the desire of the Government to provide lodgings for the industrial classes. A workman having to choose between two apartments costing the same amount, the one created by charity, the other on speculation, will choose the latter, though the accommodation be less good, in order to avoid the faint savour of pauperism which hangs about dwellers in buildings raised with public money or by private munificence.

Section V.—Government Institutions affecting the Industrial Classes.

Crèches.—M. Marbeau, to whom the establishment of this institution is due, opened the first at Paris in 1844, and, invoking the Divine protection, called it "Crèche" or manger. Children in arms are received from half-past 5 in the morning to half-past 8 in the evening for 20 centimes (2*d.*) a day, or 30 centimes (3*d.*) for two children of the same parent. The mother brings her child every morning on going to work, returns to suckle it during meal-time, and can pursue her calling without anxiety for its welfare. There are at present seventeen crèches at Paris; on Sundays and holidays they are closed. They form the link between the "Sociétés de Charité Maternelle" and the "Salles d'Asile."

Salles d'Asile.—An institution for the education of children of both sexes from 2 to 7 years of age. They are very generally gratis, but in places where there is a small expense attached to admission, children whose parents are unable to bear it are received gratis. They are frequented by a great number of children whose parents willingly afford the small outlay required, which varies according to the resources of the commune. The

lessons do not last more than fifteen minutes at a time, and are varied by bodily exercise. In 1867, there were in the Department of the Seine 187 Salles d'Asile, giving instruction to 25,424 children. The city of Paris, where they are all gratis, paid 39,510*l.* for their support, and to rural communes 805*l.* The total number of children in the Salles d'Asiles throughout France was 432,141 in 1866.

Ecoles Primaires.—The next step in the life of a child belonging to the Industrial Classes is his admission into an "Ecole Primaire." At the "Crèche" he was simply taken care of. At the "Salle d'Asile" his tender years did not admit of his being much taught. At the Ecole Primaire he receives moral and religious training and is instructed in reading, writing, and arithmetic, the elements of French, and the knowledge of weights and measures. These form the usual course, but the physical sciences, history, geography, mathematics, and surveying may be studied in addition, and even drawing, foreign languages, book-keeping, and geometry.

The instruction is given gratis throughout the country to children whose parents are not able to pay, in Paris gratis to every one.

The principal laws regulating the Ecoles Primaires are those of the 15th of March, 1850, and the 10th of April, 1867. The latter extends and makes proper provision for the education of girls, which had before been rather neglected.

In 1866, 1,732,412 boys and 1,578,290 girls attended these schools. Of the population of France, of 38,067,094 souls, 397,062 are children between 7 and 13 years of age.

The law of 1850 also provides for the establishment of schools for adults over 18 years of age, and apprentices over 12. The latter are open in the evening from 7 to 9 after the apprentices have finished the labour which they owe to their employers.

Technical Education.

Apprentices.—In 1863 a Commission was appointed to inquire into the subject of Technical Education. Its Report was published in June 1865, and the information which follows is gathered from its pages.

The first point occupying the attention of the Commission was the training of youths of the Industrial Classes from the time when they became apprentices; and had consequently hours of work which interfered with the system of primary education.

The plan of making the lads work out the usual period of apprenticeship in special factories, in which a few hours a-day are devoted to study in order to complete their primary education, does not, from the examples cited, appear to afford all the advantages which might be expected. The industrial training is stated to suffer, especially in the matter of rapidity of execution. Nevertheless, the plan may be regarded as one which may be acted upon with advantage in certain places and in certain industries, and experience shows that lads educated in such a manner often acquire at least as much knowledge of their trade as ordinary apprentices, and unite to it habits of morality and order which cause them to be much prized by foremen.

It must, however, be remembered that such institutions, springing as they do from private enterprise, are very limited in quantity, and can only furnish a number of workmen almost imperceptible in the thousands required for labour. In fact, the mass of apprentices come to maturity in the factories as they exist under ordinary circumstances, and it is to their common routine that technical instruction must be united.

The question as to whether the two hours assigned by the Law of Apprenticeship to liberty and study were sufficient was decided by the Commissioners in the affirmative on receiving evidence that they sufficed at La Ciotat* to turn out workmen fit to supply the requirements of the establishment.

As the master is bound to give the apprentice the two hours' liberty out of working hours, it was suggested that he should have the right to exact that the lad used the time for the purpose specified; but it was urged on the other hand that during those hours the lad became subject to the control of his parents or guardians, and it was determined to recommend that the point be left for arrangement between the masters and the parents.

In investigating the subject of the technical educa-

* Building yards of the Messageries Impériales steam-ships.

tion of apprentices the attention of the Commission was drawn to the fact that, in the great industrial centres, and especially at Paris, there is a tendency towards abandoning the system of apprenticeship.

Many masters, in order to escape the obligations of law and the action of the Conseils de Prud'hommes, instead of taking apprentices, engage lads as workmen who have no knowledge of the trade they are called on to pursue. They employ them as drudges: and as, by force of example, they begin to learn, the masters raise their wages.

This system, which is calculated to instil into the lad the knowledge of the value of work, and to excite his energies by the hope of a rise in his wages, offers in well regulated factories, certain advantages; but in small workshops its success is much diminished. No contract regulates the relations between the parties, and after passing from one employer to another the youth runs the risk of learning no trade at all. He also loses the advantage of the two hours' liberty, imposed by the law of apprenticeship in case his primary instruction is incomplete.

Ecoles des Arts et Métiers.—The most important schools for the technical training of youths belonging to the industrial and artizan classes are the Government establishments existing at Chalons, Angers, and Aix, entitled "Ecoles des Arts et Métiers." With a view to indicating precisely the object of these schools the Report quotes a speech of the First Napoleon. "I found everywhere foremen, clever in their branch and possessing great smartness in execution, but hardly one capable of making an outline, the simplest calculation of a machine, or expressing his ideas in a sketch or memorandum. It is a requirement in industry which I desire to supply. Latin shall henceforward be learnt at the Lycées about to be organized; here the knowledge of trades and the theories necessary for their progress. By these means we shall turn out first rate foremen for our manufactories." "Such in fact," says the Report, "is the object of these schools: it is therefore a mistake to consider them as intended to turn out not only foremen but smart workmen." The lads are rather taught the principles of each trade, and by this means, on leaving the school to become apprentices, are able with marked

rapidity to acquire the mere manual dexterity which is of course requisite for their proficiency as artizans.

At present twelve hours of instruction are given during the day, of which five are devoted to the theoretical instruction, such as mathematics, geometry; and seven hours to practical work in the workshop, where smiths, founders, turners, wheelwrights, &c., are taught their trade. Great attention is paid to instruction in drawing as the art by which so many questions of mechanical science are solved.

The success of the Institution is proved in a general way by the large number of demands for admission exceeding at the rate of four to one the number that can be received, and the Director, M. Le Brun, in his report to the Commissioners on Professional Education,* in an answer to a question as to the success of the pupils on leaving the schools, replies satisfactorily as follows:—

"The pupils leaving in 1861 and 1862 on finishing their studies, 465 in number, were, within a year afterwards, occupied thus:—

"Artizans, foremen, fitters, moulders, mounters, &c., in factories and workshops	110	188
Ditto, in railways	78	
5 with their fathers, and 6 in textile manufactories		11
Designers (industrial)	88	165
Ditto (railways)	77	
Mechanics in the Messageries Impériales		47
Public ways		22
Soldiers		4
Ecole Centrale		1
Unknown		22
Dead		3
Not placed		2
Total		465

On the other hand the system is not praised without reserve in the report† of the Directors of the Conservatoire, dated 1848. They say that the schools furnish annually a good number of designers fit for employment in large manufactories; that they send into the Depart-

* "Enquêt sur l'Enseignement Professionnel." Paris, 1864. Vol. II. page 601.

† Ibid., page 669.

ments a certain number of carpenters and locksmiths; that they may make an excellent nursery for the navy to form good engineers for steam navigation. But that having said so much it is to be observed that the pupils who aim at different employment from that already mentioned are less well trained. In general those who go into large manufactories to work as mechanics become discouraged after a short experience.

This feeling of discouragement proceeds from two sources; firstly, from the hope fostered at the school to excite emulation that on leaving they will become foremen not workmen; secondly, from disappointment at finding that their fellow-workmen without theoretical education, over whom they expected to rule, earn higher wages on account of their superior efficiency in manual labour.

On a comparison of the various Reports it would appear that the Schools of Art and Trades are, on the whole, excellent institutions, and that all they require is a more even balance between the education of the head and the hand.

A detail or even an enumeration of the various technical schools in France started in the manufacturing districts by private enterprise, would take up far too much space in a Report not especially dedicated to this branch of education. A perusal of the evidence offered to the Imperial Commission on Professional Education in 1863-64, leads to the conclusion that the industrial classes in France, seize with alacrity any opportunity of instruction, and frequent the schools already established in such numbers as to make their insufficiency clear. M. Monjean, Director of the Chaptal College at Paris, says in his evidence, "The French workman, with his intelligence and his pliant understanding, enabling him to seize things quickly, goes eagerly forward to meet every ray of light. The school founded by the Paris Chamber of Commerce in the Rue Trudaine is another proof. A payment of 3 francs (2*s.* 4¾*d.*) a month is exacted for the evening course of lectures, and over 150 workmen, apprentices, and shop boys have already in scribed themselves."*

Readiness of the French workman to learn.

M. de Marsilly, President of the Amiens Chamber of Industry, states that a building was on the point of being

* Vol. I, page 7.

opened at Amiens, for lectures on weaving and spinning, and that the construction, costing upwards of 1,000*l.*, and the necessary material were paid for within a year without help from the Government, the Department, or the Municipality. The workmen would come after hours and assist in the erection and the greater part refused to be paid.*

M. Bourcart, founder of the course of lectures at Guebwiller, invited a few intelligent workmen at Mulhouse, to see his system at work. Within three weeks there were 300 workmen ready to combine for courses of lectures and to take the initiative at Mulhouse in introducing the system.†

Remarks of M. Jules Simon on what has been done by successive French Governments for education.

M. Jules Simon, who is a very influential Deputy and an unswerving opponent of the present order of things in France, lately delivered a speech at St. Etienne on the subject of popular instruction, in which he paid a graceful tribute to the Emperor's exertions in promoting the education of the people. After stating that the first Republic had not had time to do anything for primary instruction, that the first Empire devoted to that purpose a budget of 160*l.*; the Restoration, one of 2,000*l.*; and the Monarchy of July, one of 200,000*l.*, maintained but not increased by the Republic of 1848, M. Simon on announcing that the present Government gave 720,000*l.* to the instruction of the people, said, "When I find a Power or a man, whatever they may be, were they even my most mortal enemies, who give to the noble and grand cause I serve, this pledge of powerful interest and active solicitude,—when I see them aid with this vigorous effort the progress of that beneficent idea to which I have dedicated the most ardent passion of my life, the tenacity of the adversary and the implacability of the opponent abate within me, and I can only thank and bless."

New Government scheme for gratuitous primary education.

But the Government has not relaxed its efforts. At this moment the Conseil d'Etat is engaged in settling the details of a law for gratuitous primary instruction throughout the Empire.

This law establishes definitively the principle of free instruction by charging the State with the provision of the supplementary funds necessary to enable the communes and departments to generalize gratuitous

* Vol. I, page 182. † Ibid., page 267.

education without imposing new burthens on the population. But as the credit requisite for this operation is estimated at 1,000,000*l.*, and the Budget cannot suddenly bear such an addition, the system will only come into force throughout France at the end of five years. The first year a credit of 200,000*l.* will enable it to be applied to a fifth of the communes; the following year the credit will be raised to 400,000*l.*, and the gratuitous instruction extended to another fifth, and so on progressively from year to year until the expiration of five years. It is calculated that the progressive increase of public revenue during this period will alone suffice for the outlay. The poorest communes will be first chosen for the application of the law.

Conservatoire des Arts et Métiers.—It is not possible to leave the subject of the education of the industrial classes without giving some account of the Conservatoire des Arts et Métiers at Paris. It is the most ambitious of all the institutions dealing with technical education, and the constantly increasing number of persons who attend the lectures tends to spread the influence of its teaching throughout France. Established in the last century it has experienced many ups and downs during the political struggles of the country. Instruction is promoted by a collection of models, machinery, and products; by lectures on science applied to industry and arts; by a library of 18,000 volumes on science and industry; a collection of drawings; and an elementary school. The large amphitheatre contains 700 persons and the small one 360. Admission is free, and the audience is composed of young men, foremen, skilled artizans, and many foreigners. The courses are confined to lectures on science applied to industry, and are expressed in terms which may be understood by the less instructed.

Provident Institutions.—The Provident Financial Institutions which have been either instituted or fostered during the present reign with a special view to the benefit of the industrial classes, demand more than a cursory glance, as it is from the statistics of such undertakings that the comparative prosperity of these classes may be most surely reckoned. The statistics in the following account of the "Caisse d'Epargne" "Caisse de Retraite," and "Sociétés de Secours Mutuels," are taken from the latest official Reports.

Caisses d'Epargne (*Savings' Banks*).—The savings' banks were first regulated by Royal Ordnance July 29, 1818, for the purpose of receiving on deposit small sums placed in them by agricultural labourers, workmen, artizans, servants, and other thrifty persons. Several laws on the subject have been passed since that date, the latest on the 7th May, 1853. Each deposit must amount to at least 1 franc ($9\frac{3}{4}d.$), fractions of francs are not accepted. All sums received are employed in the purchase of Government securities. The administration of the bank is gratuitous. In December of each year the Council of Directors determine the amount of interest to be allowed to depositors for the ensuing year. In the year 1867 it was $3\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. at Paris. Interest is allowed on every round sum of 12 francs ($9s.\ 7\frac{1}{4}d.$) Interest is due from the 1st of the month following the deposit of each sum of 12 francs, or the completion of the sum of 12 francs. Payment of interest takes place at the end of each month, it is added to the capital and may give interest for the following month. Deposits are returned at any time at the desire of the depositors on giving a week's notice, the bank, however, reserves the faculty of paying within the week if advisable.

A person wishing to make a deposit goes to the bureau on the day announced for the receipt of deposits, usually a Sunday, to suit the convenience of the workmen. The bank gives the depositor a book or livret, on which are inscribed all the deposits made by the owner, This is the only formality.

By the Law of 1851, the account of depositors was limited to 1,000 francs (40*l.*) Article 2 says :—"When, through the yearly payment of interest, an account exceeds the maximum laid down by the previous Article, if the depositor does not reduce it within three months, the administration of the savings' bank shall purchase on his account 10 francs (8*s.*) worth of public funds at 5 per cent. The purchase shall be made without cost to the depositor."

The number of savings' banks in France in 1867, was 488.

Forty Branch banks were opened in 1867. The number of these, which was 524 on the 31st December, 1856, was 564 at the end of 1867. These 564 branches were

created by 151 savings' banks distributed over 62 Departments.

In 1860, before the despatch of Government circulars to the Prefects, recommending the extension of these branches, there were but 205 depending on 63 savings' banks, established in 31 Departments. Thus, between the years 1861 and 1867, 359 branch savings' banks have been opened.

	£
Total receipts during 1867, arising from property belonging absolutely to the banks	668,696
Expense of administration	78,070
Balance, December 31, 1867 ..	590,626

On 1st January, 1867, there were 1,749,236 accounts in the 488 banks then in operation; 271,147 accounts were opened in 1867; 10,044 were transferred from bank to bank, giving a total of 2,030,427 accounts. If we deduct 184,824 liquidated accounts, in which number are included the 10,044 transferred accounts, added above in the total of 2,030,427, it will be found that there remain, on the 31st December, 1867, 1,845,603. This number, compared with the number in the year 1866 (1,748,944), shows an increase of 96,659 accounts, or about 5 per cent.

The division of the number of accounts by the number of savings' banks, produces 3,782 accounts for each bank. On the 31st December, 1866, the number was 3,630 for each bank.

A comparison of the total number of accounts with the total of the population (38,067,094, according to the census of 1866), shows that, on the 31st December, 1867, there was one depositor in a savings' bank to twenty inhabitants. On the 31st December, 1860, the proportion was 1 in 21.

The balance in favour of the depositors on the 31st of December, 1867, in the 488 savings' bank, was 22,834,767*l.* On the 31st of December, 1866, the balance was, 21,156,691*l.*, showing an increase of 1,678,076*l.* (7·35 per cent.) This increase exceeds that of 1866 by 252,279*l.*

If we divide the balance in favour of depositors on the 31st of December, 1867, by the total number of accounts, we get an average of 12*l.* 7*s.* 5½*d.* On the

31st December, 1866, the average was 12*l.* 1*d.* 9½*d.* Since 1860, at which time the average was 12*l.* 7*s.* 9*d.*, the highest average has been that of 1867.

Professions of Depositors in 1867.	Livrets or Accounts.	Proportion per Cent.	Credits.	Proportion per Cent.
			£ s. d.	
Workmen	90,706	33·44	677,204 18 5	33·17
Servants	43,006	15·85	282,465 2 0	13·82
Employés..	11,982	4·42	88,821 6 8	4·34
Soldiers and Sailors ..	8,190	3·01	81,130 13 10	3·96
Various Professions.. ..	66,683	24·59	661,636 2 9	32·46
Minors	50,179	18·55	240,806 8 0	11·79
Sociétés de Secours Mutuels ..	401	0·14	9,562 17 11	0·46
Totals and General Averages	271,147	100·00	2,041,627 9 7	100·00

Caisses de Retraite pour la Vieillesse (*Annuity Societies*).—Insurance offices granting annuities in old age, are established and regulated by the Laws of the 18th June, 1850, and the 12th June, 1861.

Payments must amount to 5 francs (4*s.*) at least; fractions of francs are not received. The interest is calculated at 4½ per cent. Foreigners may invest on the same conditions as Frenchmen. The maximum of annuity which the office is authorized to inscribe in the same name, is 1,500 francs (60*l.*) The amount invested in one year by the same person, may not exceed 4,000 francs (160*l.*);* but investments made by the public administration, friendly societies, or companies for the benefit of persons they employ, are not subject to this limit.

The age to enter upon the receipt of the annuity, is fixed according to the wish of the insurer, beginning with any age after 50. At the time of making the first investment, the person states at what age he wishes to begin receiving the annuity, and whether he proposes or not to reserve the capital. If he reserves the capital, the annuity consists of the interest upon it; and the capital reverts to the heirs. If he does not reserve the capital, the annuity is composed of the capital and interest capitalized.

An insurer who has stipulated for the repayment at his decease of the capital expended, may at any time renounce the whole or part of the sum, in order to

* Law of May 5, 1864. Previously, the mamimum was 1,000 francs (40*l.*) for annuities, and 3,000 francs (120*l.*) for investments in one year.

augment the annuity to an income not exceeding 1,500 francs (60*l.*) A person insuring for another with the reserve of the capital, for his own benefit, or the benefit of the heirs of the annuitant, can also, at any time, renounce his right to the capital, in order to increase the annuity of the person for whom he has insured, or to make an annuity for himself, if the reservation was for his own benefit. At the death of the insurer, before or after he has become entitled to an annuity, the capital is repaid without interest to the heirs, if the reserve has been made at the time of insurance, and has not been cancelled.

By the system as it now stands, a workman investing 30 francs (1*l.* 4*s.*) a-year, or 2 sous (1*d.*) on every working day, may obtain at 60 years of age an annuity of 500 francs (20*l.*). A father may insure his child from 3 years of age upwards, securing by the payment of 30 francs (1*l.* 4*s.*) a-year till the age of 50, or 1 sou ($\frac{1}{2}d.$) a-day on each work day (300 to the year), an annuity of 723 francs (28*l.* 18*s.* $4\frac{3}{4}d.$) a-year at the age of 60.

The law establishes that, in the case of married persons, an investment made by one shall benefit both. Two accounts are to be opened, and two separate policies granted, securing one-half to the husband and one-half to the wife.

The sum invested, which in 1866 had decreased 3 per cent., showed an augmentation in 1867 of $9\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the preceding year. In 1867 it amounted to 351,641*l.*

The number of investments in 1867 was 297,696, being an increase of 4·73 per cent. on the preceding year, but not equaling the number in 1865. The decrease is attributed to the substitution of half-yearly for quarterly payments by certain classes of investers.

The augmentation of the sums invested being proportionally superior to that of the number of investments caused a rise in the average amount of each investment, which was—

	£	*s.*	*d.*
In 1865	1	1	9
1866	1	2	$5\frac{3}{4}$
1867	1	3	$7\frac{1}{4}$

In 1867, 15,064 accounts were opened, a number inferior to the preceding year by 870.

In the professional classification of insurers, a comparison with 1866 gives an improvement in all categories except the principal one—that of workmen—which shows a diminution of nearly 18 per cent., and that of the clergy and liberal professions, which fell from 211 in 1866 to 118 in 1867. The diminution takes places only among the males, the female insurers having increased by 377.

The average of individual payments rose from 32*l.* 8*s.* in 1866 to 36*l.* 0*s.* 10*d.* in 1867.

Since its establishment the insurance office has opened 287,163 individual accounts to an equal number of insurers, from whom it has received—

		£
1,707,197	investments, without reserve of the capital, amounting to . ..	2,772,361
672,990	investments, with reserve of the capital, amounting to . ..	1,716,475
2,380,187		4,488,836

These figures show that every account opened has received on the average rather more than eight payments, and that the average of each payment has been 1*l.* 12*s.* 5¾*d.* to the capital without reserve, and 2*l.* 10*s.* 11*d.* to the capital with reserve; 1*l.* 17*s.* 8¾*d.* to the capitals united.

	£
Since the commencement of operations in 1851 the insurance office has cashed by payments and abandoned accounts	5,410,552
It has expended, either in capital reserved after death, or in irregular payments	462,653
Remainder applicable to the purchase of annuities	4,948,199
219,694*l.* worth of annuities have been bought, costing	4,948,198
Balance	1

Sociétés de Secours Mutuels (*Friendly Societies*).—These societies appear to have existed for many years without being regulated by law. In 1819 a society was formed at Paris by workers in bronze, remarkable for the wisdom of its statutes, under the name of the "Bon Accord." Similar societies were formed at Lyons, Rouen, Troyes, &c.; but it was only in 1850 that the system was first legally recognized. The Decree under

which they now flourish is dated the 26th of March, 1852. The Minister of the Interior remarks, in his Report upon the subject to the Emperor, that of all the provident institutions none merits in a higher degree the favour of the Government or the sympathy of Statesmen. The administration, indeed, appears to have been animated in organizing this institution with sincere zeal, and a practical insight into the requirements of the classes for whose benefit it was legislating.

The principal provisions of the law are as follows :—

A "Société de Secours Mutuels" is to be formed in every commune where it may be useful. These societies are to consist of participating members and honorary members. The latter pay regular contributions, or make donations, without participating in the benefit of the statutes. The Presidents of each society are to be named by the Emperor, the Council, or Committee of Management by the members. The President and Council together decide on the admission of members. The participating members are not to exceed 500 in number without the consent of the Prefect, and are to be elected by ballot. The object of the societies is to furnish temporary assistance to members who are sick, wounded, or infirm, and to provide their burial expenses. They may grant pensions if their honorary members are sufficiently numerous. The rate of payment by members is regulated by government Tables of mortality.

An approved society may be the proprietor of leasehold and personal property, and may receive, with permission of the Prefect, legacies and gifts of a value not exceeding 200*l*. The communes or the Department, if the commune is not rich enough, furnish the societies free of expense with a place to meet, and with the registers and little books (livrets) necessary for the administration.

Diplomas may be delivered by the management to each participating member. These diplomas serve as passports and livrets under conditions determined by Imperial Decree. When the funds of a society exceed 120*l*. they are transferred to the "Caisse de Depôts et Consignations," or if the members be less than 100 or the funds exceeding 40*l*. The rate of interest is fixed at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. per annum. The societies may also transfer funds to the Caisses d'Epargne and the Caisse de Retraite.

They may be dissolved by the Prefect for not executing the statutes or for bad management.

The latest report published is for the year 1867. The increase in the price of provisions and the languor of the labour market caused some fear that the year would prove a sad exception to the steady progress which had hitherto accompanied the institution. The modest earnings of the workman leave little room for saving if he must use all his efforts to gain his daily bread and assist the wants of his family. It would be idle to expect him to set money aside at a time when his energies must be concentrated in providing for the imperious necessities of the moment. Nevertheless, the societies traversed the crisis without greatly slackening their development. The increase in the number of societies and in the members was less marked than in 1866, still the number of approved societies was increased by 211, and the number of members by 31,630, while, as regards the funds, they increased by upwards of 129,000*l.*, and showed a rather greater progress than in 1866.

Number of Societies.

On December 31, 1866	5,614
Of which 3,916 are approved, and 1,698 authorized.	
On December 31, 1867	5,829
Of which 4,127 are approved, and 1,702 authorized.	
Increase	215
Of which 211 are approved, and 4 authorized.	

Since 1852 the societies have been classified as "approved" and simply "authorized." Those which are "approved" observe the statutes of the Decree of the 26th March, 1852, and enjoy the privileges conferred by it.

	£
The funds of the societies on December 31, 1867, amounted to	1,852,431
Against, in 1866	1,722,530
Increase	129,901

The receipts amounted to 560,651*l.* The expenditure to 498,845*l.*, and was incurred as follows:—

	£	s.	d.
Assistance to the sick	177,217	10	5
Doctors' fees	67,078	16	2
Medicine	75,238	2	10
Funeral expenses	21,380	12	0
Assistance to widows and orphans ..	11,903	0	0
Pensions for infirmity and old age ..	46,186	0	0
Expense of administration	25,271	11	9
Various expenses	43,443	14	3
Investments in pension funds . ..	31,125	15	9
Total	498,845	3	2

The number of sick was 159,289 men and 30,748 women: total, 190,037—giving an average of 25·64 per 100 members. 25·57 among the males—26·01 among the females.

3,998,216 days of sickness were paid—3,480,595 for males; 517,621 for females. The average of days to each sick person was 21·03—21,85 to men, 16·83 to women.

The total number of days of sickness compared to the total number of members gave to each person an average of 5·39 or 5·58 to males, and 4·37 to females.

Number of Members.

Approved Societies.

	Honorary.		Participating.	
December 31, 1866..	94,050	..	500,740	416,996 men. 83,744 women.
December 31, 1867..	101,818	..	524,602	436,252 men. 88,350 women.
Increase ..	7,768	..	23,862	19,256 men. 4,606 woman.
	31,630			

Authorized Societies.

December 31, 1866..	10,087	..	232,178	201,948 men. 30,230 women.
December 31, 1867..	10,387	..	225,988	193,951 men. 32,037 women.
Increase ..	300		..	..
Decrease ..	..		6,190	7,997 men less. 1,807 women more.

As heretofore the receipts of the societies exceeded the amount which it was obligatory to spend in the performance of the duties they are intended to discharge.

Several societies deemed it right to be lenient towards

some of their members, who on account of the dearness of provisions were unable to meet their payments punctually, and permitted them to defer payment without a rigorous application of the statutes. The Administration did not refuse to acquiesce in this arrangement.

The reporting Commission appears to have viewed with less favour a plan tried by a certain number of societies to amalgamate with themselves co-operative provision societies. While acknowledging the benefit which the industrial classes may derive from the extension of these societies, it refuses to allow them to be united with the Sociétés de Secours Mutuels. It considers that their commercial and speculative character would lead the Sociétés de Secours Mutuels into expenses and risks to which they ought not to be exposed.

An extension of the system of these Friendly Societies in another direction meets with the warm approval of the Commission. By a Law dated July 11, 1868, the societies are allowed to make collective life insurances. They are to draw up a list of all the members of the society, with the date of birth of each member, and on the premium being fixed, the request for permission to insure is addressed to the Minister of the Interior, who may authorize its payment, providing the funds of the society admit of it, to the Caisse des Depôts et Consignations at Paris, or, in the Departments, to other public offices of deposit.

The average of mortality in the societies being 1·56 per cent., 100 members, without availing themselves of the new system of the Caisse d'Assurance, would have to pay in ordinary times 156 francs (6*l.* 4*s.* 9$\frac{3}{4}$*d.*) a year, or 1 franc 50 cents (1*s.* 3$\frac{1}{4}$*d.*) a member, to insure the payment of 100 francs (4*l.*) on the decease of one of their number. But this rate would be higher in the case of an epidemic or other exceptional cause increasing the rate of mortality. The Caisse d'Assurance provides for the payment of 100 francs (4*l.*) for the same sum under all circumstances, the collective premium being invested in State securities and rendering an invariable return. This for life insurances. The Caisse d'Assurance against accidents is even more generous to a member of the society. A payment of 3 francs (2*s.* 4$\frac{3}{4}$*d.*), 5 francs (4*s.*), or 8 francs (6*s.* 4$\frac{3}{4}$*d.*), secures him a pension of from 150 francs (6*l.*) to 200

francs (8*l.*), which considerably surpasses the sum he would be entitled to were the interest of his share in the society alone taken into consideration.

The Report concludes by saying that what at present is wanting for the industrial classes is much less institutions than the knowledge of their aim, their organization, and even their existence. "Notwithstanding official publication and repeated calls on public attention, the industrial class is ignorant of the advantages offered and the conditions to be fulfilled in order to profit by them. Their name has hardly reached the ears of those who are most interested in them." The prospects, however, are very encouraging, and time will surely bring about the knowledge which the Commission pronounces to be wanting at present.

Sickness in Trades.—The following Table, taken from a work on the organization of Sociétés de Secours Mutuels, by M. J. Hubbard, published in 1852, attempts to give a basis for the calculation of the degree of sickness in Paris according to the different trades. It stopped short of its object because at that time the census returns did not give the number of persons employed in each trade. It is possible that this Table, compared with the census returns contained in the present Report, allowance being made for the increase of the population of Paris, may be used for the purpose for which it was intended by the author.

TABLE based on an examination of the Registers of all the Hospitals of Paris for the year 1850, with a view of determining the relative unhealthiness of different Trades:—

Trades.	Observations on the Registers.			Duration of each Case of Sickness.	Number of Sick Persons to each Death.
	Number of Cases.	Days of Sickness.	Deaths.		
Men.					
Quarriers	203	5.398	21	17·81	14·42
Stone cutters	227	5,771	17	25·42	13·35
Masons	1,000	23,381	69	23·38	14·49
Slaters	216	4,054	21	18·72	10·28
Zinc workers	59	1,623	6	27·51	9·83
Plumbers	73	1,848	7	25 31	10·42
Marble cutters.. ..	102	2,425	9	23·77	11·33
House painters.. ..	905	19,894	66	21·98	13·71
Paviours	113	2,608	9	23·07	12·55
Nightmen	29	754	2	26·00	14·50
Wool combers	80	1,503	9	18·78	8·88
Spinners	136	2,961	8	21·76	17·00
Weavers	221	5 699	10	25·78	22·10
Dyers	162	3,735	15	23·05	10·80
Tailors	927	21,424	73	23·11	12·69
Tanners	106	1,373	9	12·95	11·77
Bakers	584	12,473	29	21·35	20·13
Coppersmiths	57	1,296	5	22·73	11·40
Tinmen	146	4,276	11	29·28	13·27
Jewellers	300	6,081	24	20·27	12·50
Gilders	107	2,174	5	20·31	21·40
Varnishers	79	1,515	4	19·18	19·75
Colourmen	39	809	3	20·74	13·00
Turners	458	9,085	25	19·96	18·32
Founders	327	6,794	22	20·77	14·86
Polishers	126	2,461	10	19·53	12·60
*Journeymen (metal) ..	123	2,065	7	16·70	17·57
Women.					
Winders	172	3,678	15	21·38	11·46
Carders	93	2,006	5	21·56	18 60
Spinners	116	2,703	15	23 30	7·73
Washerwomen.. ..	1,668	35,802	112	21 46	14·82
Dressmakers	4,268	105,924	388	24 81	11·00
Polishers	134	2,863	7	21·37	19·14
Burnishers	159	3,428	12	21·55	16 41
Gilders	46	037	2	22·54	23 00
Varnishers	59	321	6	22·39	9·83

* These cases show the number of workmen of various professions seized in 1850 with lead colic.

Patents.—A workman is accounted as an inventor of a machine, a model, or a system, only when the idea emanates from his own brain; that is to say, when he has not taken unfair advantage of the machinery, or the experience of his employer coming within his observation in consequence of his being employed daily or by the piece.

Patents are granted for five, ten, or fifteen years. They are charged as follows: 500 francs (20*l.*) for a patent of five years; 1,000 francs (40*l.*) for a patent of ten years; 1,500 francs (60*l.*) for a patent of fifteen years.

The amount may be discharged by yearly payments of 100 francs (4*l.*) with the penalty of the patent being cancelled in case of a year passing without payment.

Patents are not granted for any invention or system which has attained, before the deposition of demand for a patent, either in France or in foreign countries a sufficient publicity to allow of its being executed or put in practice.

Infringement on patents is punished by a fine of from 100 francs (4*l.*) to 2,000 francs (80*l.*). In case of a repetition of the offence within five years, imprisonment of from one to six months may be inflicted. The patentee can obtain confiscation of counterfeit goods and of the machinery used to produce them.

Licenses.—Every employer and every workman working on his own account is bound to take out a license. In Paris a workman's license costs 12 francs (9*s.* 7¼*d.*)

Marriage of the Poor; Legitimization of their natural Children.—The Law of the 10th December, 1850, was passed to enable the poor to marry and legitimize their children without expense. The 1st Article provides that the documents necessary for the marriage of the poor, the legitimization of their natural children and the withdrawal of children placed in a foundling hospital, shall be demanded from the proper persons and collected by the civil officer of the commune in which the parties shall have announced their wish to get married.

Article 6 specifies the persons to whom the Law applies: "Shall be admitted to the benefit of this Law, persons who prove their condition by a certificate of poverty, delivered by the Commissary of Police on inspection of

the tax-roll, showing that the parties interested pay less than 10 francs (8*s.*), or a certificate from the tax-gatherer of their commune, saying they are not taxed."

The law applies to marriages between natives and foreigners.

Rights as Citizens.—Article 10 of the Constitution of 1848, maintained in the Constitution of 1852, says :—

"All citizens are equally admissible to every public employment, without other cause for preferment than their merit and according to conditions fixed by law."

Article 24. "Suffrage is direct and universal."

Article 35. "Are electors without regard to taxation, all Frenchmen of 21 years of age and in the enjoyment of their political and civil rights."

Workmen are admissible to serve on a jury or to form part of the National Guard, but they are excused if they have no time to perform such services.

Bureau de Placement.—It is frequently difficult for an artizan to find a factory where there is a vacancy, and in the large centres of industry offices have sprung up where work may be heard of. In order to save the workmen from being swindled at such bureaux, a Law was passed in 1852 imposing very severe conditions on their establishment. They may not be set up without special permission from the Municipal Authority, and the permission is only granted to persons of known integrity.

Médecins Cantonaux.—There is no law providing for gratuitous medical service in the rural districts, but the Minister of the interior has constantly recommended the Prefects to obtain a vote from the Conseil Général or Municipal for this good work. The large towns are sufficiently furnished with hospitals, but in the country want of such a resource is often severely felt and can only be supplied by the aid of district physicians. Prior to 1851 gratuitous medical service for the rural population existed in the Departments of La Moselle and Le Loiret alone. At present it exists in 50 Departments ;* 230,000 sick are yearly relieved ; the expense, amounting to 48,000*l.*, is covered by departmental and municipal contributions, private charity, and State subvention. In 1867, the average expense of each case was 5 francs 31 centimes (4*s.* 3*d.*)†

* There are 89 departments.

† "Progrès de la France sous le Gouvernement Impérial." Paris, Imprimerie Impériale, 1869.

Refuges for Convalescent Workmen.—Two important establishments of this nature were founded by the Emperor, by a Decree dated March 10, 1855, at Vesinet and Vincennes, close to Paris.

In order to be admitted to one of them, the workman must prove that, at the time of the illness or injury causing his request for admission, he was employed either on public works, or in a factory, of which the master paid a subscription for his workmen to the Refuge, or that he belonged to a Société de Secours Mutuels subscribing to the Refuge.

A qualified workman wishing to stay with his family may, instead of admission, receive a monthly or yearly allowance.

The Refuge at Vincennes cost 122,800*l.* Since its opening on the 31st August, 1857, to the 1st January, 1868, it has received 79,142 convalescents. The Refuge at Vesinet cost 60,000*l.*; and between 9th September, 1859, and 1st January, 1868, it had received 32,684 convalescents.*

Gratuitous Legal Assistance.—A Law of the 30th January, 1851, regulated the legal assistance to be afforded gratuitously to persons unable to bear the expenses of a suit. It authorized the stamp and registration dues to be dispensed with, and appointed Bureaux of Assistance, in connection with the Tribunals of Première Instance, Cour Impériale, and the Court of Cassation. Judicial assistance is likewise accorded at the Tribunal de Commerce, and before the Juges de Paix. The Conseils de Prud'hommes admit only the parties to the suit to plead.

A person seeking gratuitous legal assistance, must produce—1, an extract from the tax-roll, or a certificate from the tax-gatherer, showing that he is not taxed; 2, a declaration stating that he is unable, through poverty, to exercise his legal rights, and containing the details of his means of existence, whatever they may be. The claimant swears to the truth of these statements before the Mayor of his commune, and the Mayor attests the oath at the bottom of the declaration.

Assistance Publique.—This term embraces official assistance to the sick in hospitals and refuges, and in private houses. The Law of the 10th January, 1849,

* "Progrès de la France."

places the Administration at Paris under the authority of the Prefect of Police. The Administration consists of a Director and a Council.

Bureaux de Bienfaisance.—These benevolent institutions are also established by law. They exist in every town of any size. They investigate the cases submitted to them. They seek out the poor who suffer in silence. They distribute food tickets, and sometimes money. They give linen, clothing, medicine, and nursing, and do a vast amount of good by their ministration and advice.

Monts de Piété.—Establishments for lending money to the poor on pawn. They are regulated by the Law of the 24th of July, 1851, and are subject to the strictest rules. They come under the denomination of Etablissements d'Utilité Publique. Their Administration is presided over at Paris by the Prefect of the Seine. In the country by the Mayors. They have rendered essential service to the poorer classes, by delivering them from the grasp of small usurers.

Emigration.—Finally, if the various institutions of his country have not sufficed for the ambition or the wants of the artizan, emigration remains as a last resource. He will find at all towns whence emigration is common, a Bureau de Direction of the Commissioner of Emigration, where he may obtain gratuitous information. The conditions under which he goes to his new home, are regulated by the Law of the 23rd July, 1860, which forbids any one to undertake the transport of emigrants, except by authorization of the Minister of Agriculture, Commerce, and Public Works, and under the conditions prescribed by law.

Conseils de Prud'hommes.—"The Conseils de Prud'-hommes is established in order to put an end, by means of reconciliation, to the small disputes which arise daily, either between employers and workmen, or between foremen and workmen, and apprentices."—Law of 18th March, 1806.

The institution dates from 1806. It was first created in the town of Lyons, by a law of which the principal clauses bear a general character, and are declared applicable to other industrial centres where the want of such a system may be felt. In 1807, Conseils dePrud'hommes were established at Rouen and at Nismes. In 1808, at Avignon, Carcassone, Mulhouse, St. Quentin, Sedan, Thiers, and Troyes; in 1809 and 1810, at Reims, Lille,

Marseilles, and other towns. At the close of 1813, there were 27 Conseils de Prud'hommes in France, and 64 at the close of 1840. Since then the number has increased. Paris possesses four, of which the first was established so lately as 26th December, 1844, and the other three in 1847.

They are established by Imperial Decree, upon the recommendation of the Chambers of Commerce, or of Arts and Manufactures. The Council consists of six members, in addition to the President and Vice-President. The Council is elected by employers and workmen. The President and Vice-President are appointed by the Emperor, and are not necessarily either employers or workmen. Their appointment is for three years, and the same persons may be reappointed.

The electors consist of :—

1. Employers over 25 years of age, who have held licenses for five years, and have lived for three years within the district of the Council.

2. Foremen managers and workmen over 25 years of age, who have worked at their trade for at least five years, and have been domiciled for three years within the district of the Council.

Electors of councillors, of 30 years of age, able to read and write, are eligible to the Council.

Half the Council is renewed every three years.

The judgments of the Council are final, as long as the claim decided does not exceed 200 francs (8*l.*) Above this sum there is appeal to the Tribunal of Commerce of the Arrondissement, and in default, of a Tribunal of Commerce, to the Tribunal de Première Instance.

The Councils may be dissolved by Imperial Decree.

The general aim of the institution is to enable disputants to have their disputes examined by their equals. The tendency of the Councils is rather conciliatory than judicial; and they possess certain functions which are not judicial, such as the registration of patterns, by which a manufacturer may assert priority of design.

Nearly all the suits which come before the Court are such as arise in the interior of the workshop, either among the workmen themselves, or betweem them and their employer, and relate to every-day work The Council also takes cognizance of disputes relating to contracts of apprenticeship.

Each Council has a Bureau de Jugement and a Bureau de Conciliation. The Bureau de Jugement sits once a week, or once a fortnight; two-thirds of the Council form a Court. The Bureau de Conciliation, formed of one Prud'homme employer and one Prud'homme workman, may be said to sit permanently and to transact business every day.

The suit is very simple, and so cheap as to amount almost to being gratuitous. The Judges are unpaid. A clerk and his assistant attached to each Council receive a fixed salary from the commune.

To give an idea of the success of the Conseils de Prud'hommes in terminating disputes by reconciliation, it may be mentioned that in all the industrial centres in which such Courts exist they effect a reconciliation in 95 out of 100 cases brought before them. This satisfactory result is easily explained. The election of the Prud'homme implies the confidence of the electors in his uprightness and capacity. He naturally exercises with a kindly zeal the functions which have been awarded to him by his equals as a mark of esteem; his voice appeals with effect to feelings of justice and moderation, calms the irritation of disputants, and diminishes exaggerated pretensions. Above all, the effect of his good advice is not prejudiced by the professional pleading of counsel. At the Bureau de Jugement, as well as at the Bureau de Conciliation, the parties must appear in person without the intervention of a lawyer.

Conclusion.—Present attitude of the Working Classes in Paris.

The information contained in the preceding pages gives a summary of the laws and institutions affecting the industrial and artizan classes, and a few details of the wages and rate of living at Paris at the present moment. The account of the institutions is gathered from Government Reports and official documents; the section on the engagements between employers and workmen, from a book by a lawyer who even defends those very laws which, since the publication of his work, have been condemned in the strongest terms and abolished. In short, the Report is founded on authorities prejudiced

in favour of the system they describe. It is necessary that the reader should bear this in mind, because a perusal of the foregoing pages might lead to the conclusion that the artizan in France has no ground of complaint, and the indisputable fact that he is thoroughly disaffected might throw doubt on the accuracy of the information given.

It has not been possible, in the short time at my disposal for the study of the question, to do more than inquire into the causes of this disaffection as it shows itself at Paris, but the sentiments of the artizan classes in other large industrial centres in France are but the re-echo of those prevalent in the capital, and it is to be observed that the disaffection in its virulent form appears to be confined to the cities, and not to be shared in by the provinces.

A very small proportion of the workmen of Paris are native Parisians. They come from all quarters of the country, and for the most part return to it. A very remarkable fact has been noted, which it is to be hoped is due rather to this reflux of the working population to the provinces whence they came than to the waste of physical power consequent on the life they lead. It is stated that a Paris workman has no grandchildren, or rather let it be said, to soften the assertion and to admit of its explanation in a way not too shocking, his grandchildren are not to be found in Paris. There is, however, no doubt that the life led, hard work, dissipation, and drunkenness, go a long way to account for the fact. Not only is the man destroyed, but his children are weakly and unable to battle with the stern necessities of life. They die out early for want of stamina, and leave, in their turn, offspring who never come to maturity.

The Parisian proper is distinguishable when at work in the provinces by his frivolity, his gaiety, and his constant desire for amusement; but at Paris itself these distinguishing signs are less marked in the general propensity of all workmen, from whatever quarter, to fall in with the careless life which the Paris air seems to engender. Paris workmen are more sociable than others, more frank and less narrowminded. They are generous in assisting one another, and tolerant. These are their good qualities. On the other hand they have an irresistable love of pleasure and dissipation, and above all, are

constantly on the look-out for change; any circumstance causing a change in the ordinary routine of their existence is sure to be hailed with delight. They rushed to the barricades in 1848 with the same impetuosity that they press in eager expectation at the closed doors of a theatre, glad of anything to vary the monotony of life, and utterly reckless of consequences.

Their tolerance and friendliness cease when their employers' interests are concerned. No private indulgence—no public legislation—can eradicate from their mind the idea that the capitalist is a vampire feeding upon their blood. In the workshop the discipline may be complete; beyond it the employer is treated without respect, and his word is without influence. His efforts to make little arrangements which may be useful or agreeable to them are treated not as boons, but as devices to bribe them to additional labour. A large manufacturer, by the way of doing a kindness to the hands in his employment, turned on a tap of hot and cold water outside the manufactory, at which any of the families living about could come and help themselves. A workman on being asked whether the innovation was well received by his fellows, replied simply, without the slightest intention of giving offence, that it appeared to be only a small part of what was due to them. They seem to be incapable of the sentiment of gratitude for any act of the person whom they enable by their labour to accumulate wealth while they remain poor.

Keep these characteristics in view, and turn to what has been going on for the last twenty years, and the present attitude of the industrial classes. The Emperor, without being able to effect it at once, has been steadily bent upon the enfranchisement of the industrial classes from the special laws restricting their actions in the prosecution of their calling. One by one the laws which they quoted in proof of their subjection, have been either removed, or modified so as to bear equally on employers and employed. They are now no longer a nation apart with a special legislation to reduce them to obedience. This year, previous to the general elections, the Emperor announced that the last shackle should be stricken from their limbs. A law abolishing the livret was submitted to the Chamber. At the same time that they have acquired liberty, means have been afforded them

of providing against want by a small amount of thrift. State Provident Institutions have received large grants of money to put them on a firm footing, and they are well supported by the classes for whom they are intended.

Thus the Empire appears to have done its best to gain the affection of the working classes, and the return is the election of men, bitterly hostile to the Empire, in every circumscription in Paris.

The character of the workmen observable in their relations with their employers asserts itself in their feelings towards the governing power. No indulgence appears to them in the light of a spontaneous act of benevolence. They say, again and again, "It is only part of what is due to us." The greater portion of them come up as young men from the provinces, full of life, impressionable, of an age when the socialistic doctrine most readily takes root. They become ready listeners to the men of talent who find it possible to gain an easy livelihood by preaching revolution and change in impassioned language. The want of mechanics' institutes and working men's clubs, where the artizan could go and spend a quiet evening in reading or talk, leaves thousands of idlers too glad to listen to anything so long as it passes the time. It is the natural soil for the Socialist to cultivate. He has sown; and reaped at the elections.

But many workmen save money; they marry—are good husbands—good fathers; they are anxious to provide for their children, and, as by degrees they become well off, they cease to share in the extreme opinions of the youths who have lately arrived, or of their contemporaries whose vices have kept them poor. Were these men, forming a very numerous class, to remain at Paris, and to educate their children in sentiments which experience has formed, the attitude of hostility might soon give way. Unfortunately, this class of workmen, when he has made his money, returns to the home he left perhaps twenty years before. He takes with him his family, his money, and his ideas of order, and is replaced at Paris by the country lad, ready to embrace the principles of the man who takes the trouble to mould him.

Hence, in a great degree, the ill-success of all attempt at conciliation. Be it said to the credit of the Adminis-

tration, that this want of success has in no way caused it to relax its efforts to gain the suffrage of the people by legitimate means. It recognizes the duty of doing right whatever the return, and if we accept the testimony of one* of the best accredited authorities on the feelings of the industrial classes, with regard to the effect of the treatment of workmen by employers, it is possible that we may yet see the Paris artizans rally to the support of the house they are at present endeavouring to pull down:—

"In our manufacturing districts, where does hostility between employers and men prevail with the greatest persistence? Those who have examined the question entertain no doubt about the answer. It is in those districts where the fewest steps have been taken to improve the condition of the men and of their families, and where the least success has attended the efforts made.

"Be sure of one thing—workmen who have been the object of benevolent action, and of measures which are really disinterested, do not, because they raise cries and make complaint, the less retain a good impression at the bottom of their hearts, though they themselves may not be aware of it; and this impression always influences their conduct in a greater or less degree in times of difficulty."

(Signed) EDWARD B. MALET.

Paris, December 20, 1869.

No. 17.

Mr. Erskine to the Earl of Clarendon.—(Received February 4.)

My Lord, *Athens, January* 27, 1870.

I HAVE the honour to transmit herewith to your Lordship a Report, which has been drawn up by Mr. Gould, in conformity with the instructions contained in your Lordship's Circular despatch of the 30th

* M. A. Audiganne. "Les Populations Ouvrières, et les Industries de la France." Tome ii, page 399.

April last, on the artizan and industrial classes in Greece.

I have, &c.
(Signed) E. M. ERSKINE.

Inclosure in No. 17.

Report by Mr. Gould on the Artizan and Industrial Classes in Greece.

The scanty and scattered population of Greece, is principally engaged in agricultural and seafaring occupations. Its mode of living is of the most frugal and primitive, consequently its requirements are proportionately few. Many of the necessities of populations in more advanced stages of civilization, and living in less-favoured climates are almost unknown. Though of late years Greece has undoubtedly made some material progress, in spite of many drawbacks, its natural resources are still in a great measure undeveloped, and there is but little commercial activity. The numerous Greeks who, by their intelligence and enterprize, acquire large fortunes in foreign countries, seldom, if ever, return to their own, in which their presence would be of incalculable advantage; and of those who remain, but comparatively few are wealthy. Such is the scarcity of capital, that whereas land usually yields but 4 per cent. per annum, the average annual rate of interest on the best securities is as high as 10 and 12 per cent. Owing chiefly to the above causes, the artizan and industrial classes labour under great disadvantages; and their sphere of activity is far more restricted than in other more populous and prosperous communities. It is only within the last ten or twelve years, that any attempt has been made to establish manufactories. These, however, are but few in number, and afford employment to a relatively small body of operatives.

The very existence of artizan and industrial classes seems to have entirely escaped the notice of Greek political economists and statisticians, It is, therefore, impossible to obtain on this interesting subject, that reliable and precise information, without which it would

be vain to attempt to establish the proportion they bear to the other classes of the population. The Director of the Statistical Board having, however, at some personal inconvenience, kindly obtained from the Finance Department a list of the licenses taken out by the different commercial establishments, professions, and trades, a copy of it is hereto appended. Though the information it contains is interesting in many respects, still it fails to show the number of persons actually engaged in each profession or trade, since it merely refers in general to heads of establishments, employers, or individuals working on their own account.

Lawyers	448
Solicitors	504
Notaries	237
Medical men	307
Dentists	4
Apothecaries	137
Directors of private schools	39
Music teachers	13
Dancing masters	18
Musicians	106
Banks	3
Steam navigation companies	1
Private banks	5
Insurance offices	11
Agencies	15
Breweries	3
Silk factories	3
Silk spinning factories	48
Soap factories	20
Fez factories	3
Type foundries	3
Photographic establishments	13
Saw mills	47
Powder mills	6
Water mills	95
Snuff factories	5
Hotels	19
Lodging houses	13
Wine shops	2,250
Cooking establishments	47
Public baths	2
Billiard rooms	63
Coffee houses	1,284
Potteries	61
Quarries	18
Brokers	138
Shipowners	2,233
Auctioneers	28
Money changers	13

Money lenders	225
Wholesale dealers	108
Coal merchants	74
Resin merchants	6
Tar merchants	22
Wood merchants	206
Flour merchants	91
Tobacco merchants	15
Tobacconists	343
Wax merchants	32
Wine and spirit merchants	777
Oil merchants	43
Lime merchants	8
Hardware merchants	33
Colour merchants	18
Stationers	13
Jewellers	98
Gold and silver smiths	153
Earthenware merchants	46
Ironware merchants	45
Merchant tailors	67
Fruiterers	49
Grocers	1,633
Toy merchants	8
Watchmakers	46
Ready-made clothes shops	9
Linen drapers, haberdashers, pedlars, &c.	1,020
Upholsterers	6
Hatters	4
Shipbuilders	10
Public weighers	24
Overseers of works	10
Coachmakers	13
House decorators	5
House painters	33
Hairdressers	35
Barbers	195
Gunsmiths	167
Furriers	50
Harness makers	131
Pack-saddle makers	334
Saddlers	1
Confectioners	73
Pastrycooks	7
Oil mills	1,259
Caulkers	158
Chimney sweeps	2
Shoe last makers	8
Coffee grinders	17
Basket makers	54
Cap makers	16
Musical instrument makers	3
Glovers	2
Butchers	837
Iron bedstead makers	3
Coopers	327

Cutlers	88
Milliners	16
Millers	2,742
Naval constructors	16
Shipwrights	39
Rope makers	83
Tailors	1,348
Masons	2,454
Carpenters	1,437
Plasterers	125
Stone cutters	78
Builders	105
Lime kilns	145
Cabinet makers	110
Farriers	169
Quilt makers	30
Knife grinders	7
Turners	32
Lace makers	6
Braid makers	127
Gold lace makers	11
Bootmakers	260
Shoemakers	1,048
Blacksmiths	716
Tinkers	355
Coppersmiths	137
Pipe makers	2
Snuff grinders	12
Scale makers	26
Printers	50
Weavers	221
Mat makers	70
Vendors of sweets	69
Bakers	504
Itinerant vendors of bread	148
Charcoal burners	592
Booksellers	21
Bookbinders	29
Dyers	189
Tanners	186
Carmen	325
Coachmen	285
Muleteers	1,281
Cooks	207
Milkmen	32
Lightermen	61
Fishermen	794

Many of the persons in the foregoing list, who are designated as merchants, are in all probability merely very small tradesmen.

The following Tabular Statement, compiled from private sources, shows the usual rates of wages

received by persons in some of the most important trades :—

	Per Diem.			
	s.	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*
Watchmakers	1		to 2	$1\frac{1}{2}$
Gunsmiths	1		1	5
Tailors	2	$1\frac{1}{2}$		$5\frac{3}{4}$
Bakers	1	$0\frac{3}{4}$		
Dyers	2	$1\frac{1}{2}$	..	
Coopers	1	$9\frac{1}{4}$	..	
Tanners	2	$1\frac{1}{2}$	..	
Coppersmiths	1	$9\frac{1}{4}$	2	$1\frac{1}{2}$
Bookbinders	1	$9\frac{1}{4}$	..	
Hatters	1	5	..	
Saddlers	1	5	2	$1\frac{1}{2}$
Confectioners	1	5	..	
Hairdressers and barbers	1	5	2	10
Shoe and boot makers, piece-work, or	2	$1\frac{1}{2}$	2	10
Tinkers	1	5	..	
Printers	1	5	2	$1\frac{1}{2}$
Butchers	1	5	2	10
Turners (only employ apprentices)	..		..	
Carpenters	2	$1\frac{1}{2}$	3	$6\frac{1}{2}$
Cabinet makers	2	$1\frac{1}{2}$	4	3
Shoe last makers	1	5	..	
Caulkers	2	$1\frac{1}{2}$	2	10
Cutlers (generally employ apprentices)	1	5	..	
Rope makers	2	$1\frac{1}{2}$	..	
Musical instrument makers (piece work)	..		..	
Blacksmiths	1	5	1	$9\frac{1}{4}$
Mat makers	0	$8\frac{1}{2}$	1	$0\frac{3}{4}$
Masons	1	$9\frac{1}{4}$	3	$6\frac{1}{2}$
Stone cutters	1	$9\frac{1}{4}$	2	$1\frac{1}{2}$
Plasterers	2	$1\frac{1}{2}$	3	$6\frac{1}{2}$
House decorators	2	$1\frac{1}{2}$	4	3
Pack-saddle makers	0	$8\frac{1}{2}$	1	5
Lace makers	1	5	..	
Weavers (piece work)	..		..	
Operatives in the silk factories—				
Men	1	$9\frac{1}{4}$	2	$1\frac{1}{2}$
Women	1	$0\frac{3}{4}$	..	
Children	0	$8\frac{1}{2}$	..	
	Per Month.			
Millers	21	3	24	$9\frac{1}{2}$
Men employed in lime kilns	21	3	24	$9\frac{1}{2}$
Men employed in potteries	21	3	24	$9\frac{1}{2}$
Farriers	17	$8\frac{1}{2}$	21	3

Owing to the number of church festivals kept as strict holidays, there are but 265 working days of, on an

average, nine to ten hours each in the year. This, of course, greatly reduces the amount annually received by each individual in the shape of wages; but the smallness of the amount is partially compensated by the cheapness of provisions, and the surprisingly little quantity of food required to sustain life in such a climate, where likewise the want of warm clothing and fuel is rarely felt. The habits of the Greek people are naturally simple and frugal in the extreme; and it is therefore without much effort that they are able to observe in so stringent a manner their religious fasts, amounting to the extraordinary number of 195 in the course of the year, On these days their only nourishment often consists of bread, wine, and olives. Meat is generally of very inferior quality; but the ordinary price is under 5*d.* per lb.; common bread costs 1½*d.* per lb.; and the resined wine, usually drunk in large quantities by the lower orders, less than 2*d.* the imperial pint. It has, however, such a highly disagreeable taste and smell of resin, that but few foreigners can drink it.

There are no special lodging-houses for the working classes. They usually live in badly-built houses, with earthen floors, and containing but one, or at most, two rooms, the doors of which open out upon small and dirty courts, used in common by the neighbours for almost every domestic purpose. In many of these houses the windows are unprovided with panes of glass; and the shutters and doors seldom close properly. The furniture is as scanty as it is rude. In fact, there is not the faintest attempt at that orderly cleanliness and comfort, so often found in the dwellings of the working classes of other countries. Rents range from 7*s.* 1*d.* to 14*s.* 2*d.* a-month, whole families, or two or three single men frequently occupying but one room.

As a rule, the engagements between masters and men are not binding. The latter are generally paid by the day. Even when hired by the month, both parties are free to break off the engagement at any moment, without previous warning. Apprentices are, nevertheless, bound by law to serve out their indentures. The terms of their engagement vary very much in different trades. Whereas in some they have to pay for their training, in others they work without compensation, and in others again they receive a small stipend. But in

almost every case they are boarded and lodged by their masters, for whom they not unfrequently have to perform the duties of servants.

A certain number of English mechanics, serving under special contracts, have found durable and fairly remunerative employment on board the vessels of the National Steam Navigation Company, on the railway from Athens to the Piræus, and in setting up and taking charge of machinery in various parts of the country. Their case is, however, a very exceptional one. The low rates of wages for almost every kind of skilled labour, only prove too clearly, that however limited the supply may be, it is, nevertheless still fully equal, if not superior, to the demand. Under these circumstances, the successful introduction of foreign labour on a large scale, seems for the present at least, totally out of the question, for foreign artizans would almost starve on the pittance on which native workmen can maintain themselves without apparent hardship. Before any improvement in this respect can possibly be hoped for, many and great changes must occur in the political, financial, and social condition of Greece; and of these, it must be admitted, there are, up to the present time, but few exceptions.

(Signed) G. F. GOULD.

No. 18.

Sir C. Wyke to the Earl of Clarendon.—(Received February 16.)

My Lord, *Copenhagen, February* 8, 1870.

On my return to Copenhagen Mr. Strachey made a fresh attempt to prepare his Report on the Working Classes of Denmark. He was able to collect some new facts, by help of which, added to his former materials, he has now drawn up a Report, which I have the honour to inclose. He informs me that he is not satisfied with it, but that he has spared no pains to make it correct and complete.

I have, &c.

(Signed) CHARLES LENNOX WYKE.

Inclosure in No. 18.

Report by Mr. Strachey on the Working Classes of Denmark.

Copenhagen, February 10, 1870.

No general collection of the facts on which I have been desired to report has been published here. The reasons for such indifference are very simple. Denmark, nothing if not agricultural, is at present the scene of an agrarian revolution, whose superior interest withdraws public attention from secondary domestic topics. Furthermore, the circumstances which elsewhere connect the working man with grave questions of national politics and economy are in this country unknown. Capital and labour have not yet come into visible antagonism. Trades Unions, strikes, and operative class action, are still things of the future for the Danish artizan.

Certain points of the subject have been incidentally discussed in reviews and pamphlets. All available sources of this kind I have carefully examined, as well as apposite statistical reports published by the Danish Government, which, however, are neither complete nor numerous. My personal enquiries of employers of labour, workmen, and others likely to be able to furnish authentic information, have been on a respectable scale. It has been my aim throughout to avoid acting as a mere reflector of local opinions. From many of my conclusions Danish patriotism, especially the phase of it known to natives as "Copenhagenism," will indignantly dissent.

1. *Statement of Employments.*

Measured by English standards the various forms of Danish industry are on a small scale. Large factories employ about 150 to 200 hands. The machinery works of Burmeister and Wain, of Copenhagen, employ 800 hands, but the case is entirely exceptional. There may be in Denmark about 15 to 20 foundries (Copenhagen, Odense, Veile, &c.) Nearly 20 cloth factories (Copenhagen, Viborg, Odense, Brede). Ten glass works (Elsinore,

Aalborg, Nestved). Two or three paper manufactories (Copenhagen and Silkeborg). In Copenhagen there are 2 china works, 4 sugar refineries, 28 breweries, 32 printing presses, 6 cloth factories, 4 carpet factories, 2 paper works, and 1 cotton mill—many of them very small establishments. In average workshops 5 or 6 hands are generally employed—25 to 50 hands would be a very large number.

2. *Numbers of Employers and Employed.*

The last census of the country was taken in 1860. The present population is rated at about 1,800,000, of whom about 35 per cent. would be set down as employed in industrial occupations, including, however, in the 35, servants and other persons who do not properly belong to industry. In 1860 the numbers for the chief trades were as follows:—

Carpenters	48,500
Smiths	34,000
Weavers	30,000
Shoemakers	25,700
Tailors	24,900
Bricklayers	20,000
Millers	17,000

Between 1855 and 1860 the increase of masters had been more rapid than that of men. In 1860 these numbers were observed for Copenhagen:—

	Masters.	Journeymen.
Shoemakers	948	1,616
Tailors	618	988
Smiths	202	1,221
Carpenters	375	1,663

For the country at large the scale of production was much smaller than for Copenhagen. To every 10 masters there were only 2 men, against 13 men in the capital.

The statistics just given are fragmentary, but it would be idle to quote at greater length the antiquated figures of 1860—a new census being now (February 1) in process.

3. *Contracts and Wages.*

The Corporation ("Laug") system, formerly as strict here as in Germany itself, was in vigour up to 1862. Under the "Business Law," passed in 1857, the Laugs lost their compulsory powers, being, however, tolerated as voluntary friendly societies. That law is not without a mediæval element, town industry receiving a certain protection against its arch-enemy, country industry. But the law's concessions to the spirit of monopoly scarcely affect the artizan, so that free trade in labour may be said to be the rule in Denmark.

Piece-work has now come into general use, especially for Copenhagen, where tailors, shoemakers, and the like habitually work at home. Piece-workers receive a weekly allowance, on account, equal to about half their average earnings. Danish operatives are accustomed to work half-time on Sundays. The hours of labour would generally be 12 or 13; in some cases, however, 14 and 15, as, for instance, with bricklayers in the long summer days.

The average earnings of good hands are stated in the following Table:—

Name.	Rate.			
	Rix-dollars.		*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*
1. Bricklayers, carpenters, paviours ..	7	to 8	15 6	to 17 6
2. Smiths, bookbinders, instrument makers	9	..	20 0	..
3. Weavers, and other manufacturing hands	7	10	15 6	22 0
4. Painters	8	..	17 6	..
5. Tailors	7	..	15 6	..
6. Shoemakers	6	..	13 0	..
7. Tinmen	6	7	13 0	15 6
8. Turners	5½	8	12 0	17 6
9. Helps, and all kinds of casual, unclassified daily workmen ..	4	5	8 6	10 6

On these figures it must be remarked that the earnings of No. 1 Class are subject to great fluctuations according to the season. In the months of May, September, or October a first-rate carpenter might contrive to earn 26*s.* a-week, and first-rate bricklayers 30*s.* a-week; tailors may at times earn 22*s.*; shoemakers up

to 17*s.* 6*d.*; smiths up to 26*s.*: all for first-rate hands by piece-work, and for Copenhagen only. All things considered, where the English (London) operative is earning 20*s.* a-week, the Dane may be getting 13*s.*, the English 36*s.* wage answering to 19*s.* or 20*s.* in Copenhagen. Reserving for another place all questions connected with the relative purchasing power of Danish and English wages, I may observe here that the Dane has less chance than the Englishman of obtaining the highest rates. The proportion of day-workers to all is very large here, and the men have few openings for becoming foremen: even in Copenhagen the master almost always does the foreman's work himself.

Provincial rates are somewhat lower than Copenhagen rates, and the workman is, on the whole, better off in the capital. The provincial artizan not unfrequently lives with the master. A carpenter would, under this system, receive 9*s.* a-week with board and lodging. The village artizans (especially carpenters, coopers, blacksmiths, basket-makers, &c.) are generally agriculturists with three or four acres of ground, leasehold or freehold. The position of such people who are called "housemen" ("huusmænd") is altogether *sui generis;* it could not be explained apart from the Danish agrarian question at large. To reproduce details, abundantly given in my Report on the Land Tenures and Agriculture of Denmark, would be a waste of time.

On the point of railway labour some detailed explanations have been given in a work on prices, just published in Copenhagen. For the year 1865 the average daily wages received in Jutland by navvies using their own tools were, for the summer months, 2*s.* 2*d.* a-day, for all the year 1*s.* 6*d.* a-day. In 1866, with a greater demand for labour, wages were nearly 3*s.* a-day in the summer, and for all months 2*s.* 5*d.* In 1868, 3*s.* 3*d.* and 2*s.* 9*d.* In October 1868, March 1869, wages were 1*s.* 10*d.*, even 1*s.* 6*d.*, the labour market being glutted, and none but the best hands commanding even that reduced price.

Danish wages are somewhat higher than those paid a quarter of a century ago, especially for unskilled work. But the rise has not kept pace with the increased price of food and lodging (from 30 to 40 per cent. since 1850),

so that the improvement in the artizan's condition has lagged behind that of the country at large. The labour market is generally glutted, partly, no doubt, owing to the constant influx of Swedish, and even of German, artizans. The Swedish mechanic, or field labourer, can travel to Denmark for 2*s.* or 3*s.*; he gets higher wages here than he could at home, and can adopt himself at once to the local habits, which, in fact, like the language, are nearly identical with his own. There are a few German artizans in the country, but the Danish operative, especially in Copenhagen, is apt to be a rabid Scandinavian, so that new comers from Germany are exposed to the risk of ill-treatment. Germans, however, have a peculiar knack of adopting the style and ideas of the country where they settle. Their nationality sits lightly upon this cosmopolitan people, who quickly lose most of their Teutonic characteristics, being soon metamorphosed into Frenchman, Englishmen, Italians, Americans, or Turks. For this reason German artizans who have actually established themselves here can get on without much difficulty; the German language is very generally spoken in Copenhagen and other Danish towns.

Strikes are almost unknown here. I cannot learn that there have been more than three regular operations of the kind. In 1848 the printers struck and received an advance of wages; in 1865 the bricklayers and carpenters struck for ten days; in 1867 the carpenters again, with the result of an additional twopence a-week for their trouble.

For comparison's sake I quote Mr. Baxter's estimate of maximum wages for the United Kingdom, with the Copenhagen equivalents:—

	England and Wales.	Ireland.	Copenhagen.
	Per Annum. £	Per Annum. £	Per Annum. £
Higher skilled labour ..	73	62½	52
Lower do. ..	52	..	34
Unskilled and agricultural..	41	26	25

I have tried to compile other analyses after the model of those given for England by Mr. Baxter and

Professor Levi, but for such the materials available are insufficient.

4. *Provident Societies.*

Under the old "Laug" system each trade had its chest, to which the associated workmen were obliged to subscribe from 2*d.* to 4*d.* a-week. These chests granted charitable allowances, pensions, and free lodgings to needy or sick members; their expenses of administration were enormous, amounting in some cases to over a quarter of the receipts. When the guilds were condemned as incompatible with the spirit of the time, and with the democratic constitution of 1849, some of the chests were turned into voluntary relief funds, others collapsed, and the "Laug" societies were partially superseded by independent provident institutions, many of which had been organized before the abolition of the exclusive system.

Of the friendly societies of Denmark taken in all, no connected general account has been drawn up; but a recent official report gives approximate statistics for 1867. It mentions 335 societies whose funds are destined to relieve sick members, assistance being exceptionally granted by some of them to aged subscribers and widows, and for funerals. The average weekly payment is about 12 skillings, or 3*d.*; a member in hospital would receive about 4*s.* 6*d.* a-week; a sick member at home 2*s.* 3*d.* a-week, with free medical attendance and physic; the cost of administration may be 12 per cent.

Making allowance for unrecorded societies the actual members were taken at about 43,000 for all Denmark, or at 1 person in 41 of the population. The analogous English proportion as regards certified societies alone being nearly 1 in 4. The extent of the working mens' participation in these societies is nowhere stated, but I have attempted to estimate it for myself in the following way:—

	Members.	Members.
From the present (probable) number of members of sick societies, that is		44,000
Deduct the military clubs	11,000	
And the country district clubs	8,000	
		19,000
Giving for the remainder a total of		25,000

Objections may be taken to this result; but as a statement of working class participation it is probably too high rather than too low.

The Report for 1867 shows that the average number of members in each of the 244 societies which had furnished proper statistics was about 91, the extremes being 759 and 5 respectively. Women were 21 per cent. of all; in Copenhagen only 8 women to 5,730 men. The mean number of sick days for each member was 5·62.

According to the above figures it would not seem that in Denmark more than 1 workman in 15, or at the outside, 1 in 10, subscribing to sick clubs. There are, however, 56 special burial, and some old age provident societies, which last do not appear to be on a large scale of membership.

Not included in the above account are the arrangements made by some of the surviving "Laugs" for granting free lodgings to members of their trades. The shoemakers dispose of house room for 31 families; the tailors lodge 37; the carpenters, 30 families; the bricklayers, 48: the whole number of free apartments thus given being 159.

This statement is, from the want of materials, necessarily incomplete; but its general results, as far as friendly societies are concerned, may be taken as approximately correct.

5. *Savings' Banks.*

The capital at this moment held by the Danish banks may amount to 6,000,000*l.* The interest allowed has of late been $3\frac{3}{4}$ per cent., reckoned from day to day.

The last year of which the operations have been fully described is 1866, when there were 86 banks in operation; 54 of them furnished detailed accounts to the Government. From the mass of figures contained in the official analysis, those are reproduced here which seem most germane to the present subject. At the end of the year 1866 all the deposits amounted to about 5,002,600*l.*, the sums deposited during the year having been 2,854,800*l.* The numbers of persons holding accounts was 205,997, or about 1 in $8\frac{1}{2}$ of the popu-

lation, more than half of all having investments under 12*l.*, and less than one-tenth investments over 56*l.* For 54 banks it appeared that the holders of the operative class were only 9·36 per cent. of all. Looking to the fresh deposits it was seen that, in 1866, their number was 16,786 (nearly 1 per cent. of the population), of which 1,265 only were made by operatives, whose average deposit was about 14*l.*

This is a very large amount to be saved by a Danish workman; and curiously enough no one here seems to have noticed its true significance. It cannot be supposed that the operative, with 6 dollar wages, can save more than, say, 12*l.* a-year; as a matter of fact, he seldom saves 1 mark, or 4¼*d.* a-week. It is, therefore, evident that the mass of the depositors are highly-paid workmen, unless, indeed, the average given should be a fictitious amount, the actual deposits being some very much more, others very much less, than 14*l.*, which, of course, may possibly be the case. However, 50*l.* is generally named here as an enormous sum for an artizan to accumulate by the time he reaches his fiftieth or sixtieth year. And the proprietors of the great machine factory of Copenhagen have had great difficulty in getting a sufficient number of their men, who may earn from 17*s.* 6*d.* to 20*s.* a-week and more, to invest 1 mark, or 4¼*d.* a-week, in the very advantageous Building Club which will presently be described. This fact illustrates and competes the result at which I have arrived deductively from figures, as above, and it tallies with a remark made to me by a very competent authority, "Where one Danish workman saves 1 dollar, the Englishmen save 10*l.*," which statement, divested of the exaggeration proper to an antithesis, may be called true.

6. *Building Societies.*

The general figures of the subject are, that between 1851 and 1870, there have been built in Copenhagen 71 houses, with 777 apartments, giving lodging-room for about 3,200 persons of the operative class

The most important of these societies was started in 1865, by Messrs. Burmeister and Wain, the largest employers of labour in Denmark, whose Copenhagen

factory for engines, machines, iron-ships, &c., has already been mentioned. Mr. Wain is an Englishman, and his desire was to introduce the cottage system, hitherto almost unknown in Denmark. In its original shape, the society was exclusively for the workmen of the factory. A loan on mortgage was obtained from the Copenhagen Savings' Bank, and a piece of ground was presented by a philanthropic manufacturer, M. Holmblad. The plan was, that every member should pay 1 mark, or $4\frac{1}{4}d.$ a-week, and a deposit of 1 dollar, or 2*s.* 2*d.* The houses, when finished, or unoccupied, to be drawn for by lot; the member winning, has to pay a fair rent for the house; the excess of the rent over the interest (6 per cent.) on the actual cost of the house, is credited to the occupant, who, in twenty-eight years, would thus repay the capital, and be entitled to a conveyance of the house in freehold. The houses are two-floored; and if the tenant prefer to let the first floor, he would be able to work off his debt in ten years. Members who do not win are entitled to reclaim the entire amount of their deposits after eighteen years, and in certain other specified cases; temporary suspensions of the subscription for special reasons are allowed; members may cede their rights to other members. The society has since been opened to the operatives of the capital generally. It has built 36 two-floored cottages in rows, each having a small court and garden, and three or two rooms, with a kitchen, being in all accommodation for about 280 persons. The ren tof a first floor would be about 7*l.* 10*s.*; of a ground floor, about 6*l.* 10*s.* a-year.

This system offers great advantages to operatives, for at the worst they have invested their money in a savings' bank; at the best their first rent-charge is only 6*l.* or 7*l.* a-year, whereas their less fortunate fellows must pay at least 8*l.* a-year for much worse accommodation on a flat. The society hopes to build 16 houses in the present year. The actual number of members is 1,352, the capital in hand about 2,200*l.*

Of the other enterprises of a like kind, four have been set on foot by share companies, one by the administrators of a charitable foundation. With three of them are associated baths and washhouses; three will proceed with their operations. One of them was instituted by the "Workman's Society" (see below); it provided house

room for from 300 to 400 persons, and will have ready fifty new apartments in the course of the present year. This association pays 6 per cent. to the shareholders, and has a surplus; the workmen can, as in the scheme before described, acquire their houses in freehold on easy terms; rents, 3*l.* 10*s.* to 4*l.* 10*s*; a-year.

In the town of Aarhuus (Jutland), a building society has been formed, with a capital of 1,200*l.* in shares. It will begin operations in the spring. It appears to be the only building society in the provinces.

All these companies have been founded by the philanthropic efforts of capitalists, professional persons, and others, the operatives having, as a rule, hung back until the final arrangements were made.

7. *Co-operative Stores.*

Everything has been done for the working classes, nothing by them. There are now in Denmark 37 stores on the Rochdale model. The Rev. Mr. Sonne, of Thisted, has the credit* of having been the founder of the first Danish store; he has been rewarded by the Government with the Order of the Dannebrog, and is spoken of by the trading classes as a malignant incendiary. Mr. Sonne began operations by inducing 83 operatives to subscribe each 3*d.* a-week to a share-fund, of which he undertook the management. His next move was to contract with a baker, who, upon being guaranteed the custom of the society, allowed the members large discount on all purchases of bread. The discount was saved up until, after four months' delay, it amounted to 6*l.* when the society ventured to lease a house and to begin buying on its own account. As definitely organized, the society consisted of shareholders, with five shares at 11*s.*, to be paid upon weekly payments of 3*d.*; entrance fee of 1*d.*; election by ballot; sales at current prices. After a quarter's business, the Thisted store was able to pay 5 per cent. on capital, and to allow purchasers 2*d.* discount on the Danish dollar (2*s* 2*d.*) Within little more than a year from the date of inagura-

* However, a store, which soon became bankrupt, had been set going in Copenhagen before he began on his.

tion there were 176 members, of whom, however, 70 were not working men.

The Thisted store was set going in 1866, and there are now in Denmark nearly 50 like institutions. Eleven of these, with 1,708 members, furnished full accounts of their situation to the journal called "The Workman," which is the Danish representative of the "Co-operator." The number of members in all of them is not reported, but it may possibly amount to 6,000 or 7,000. They seem to be tolerably flourishing; one of the Copenhagen stores has, however, become bankrupt.

It will be easily imagined that Mr. Sonne, and his imitators in other Danish towns, have had to contend with infinite opposition and to incur virulent abuse. One difficulty in their path has been, and continues to be, that their labours are crossed by a certain undercurrent of antagonism coming from a party which, though itself full of charitable wishes and endeavours for the working man, is jealous of the principle of self-help.

I cannot learn that there is here any case of an industrial society, except that of the town of Faaborg, where there is a large co-operative shop for the sale of various articles made by the members in their free hours. This institution has done business to the extent of 1,500*l.* in two years. A step, however, towards industrial partnerships has been made by the firm of Hornung and Muller, pianoforte-makers, of Copenhagen. This firm has granted a premium of two dollars on every piano made in their establishment since 1850, the fund thus accumulated being invested for the benefit of the workmen. The amount is now over 900*l.* It serves as a loan fund, also as a benefit fund for men who have worked for ten consecutive years in the establishment, as well as for men (and their widows) who have been injured in the execution of their work.

8. *General Condition of Operatives.*

A Danish pamphleteer has compared the abodes of operatives of Copenhagen with those of operatives in the old town of Edinburgh. The Dane is lodged in

the back part of a several-storied house, generally in the so-called cellar, or half-underground apartment, which may open into a dingy court nine or ten feet square. There is little light or ventilation, and the people keep their apartments as close as possible; if willing to open their windows they can scarcely do so for the effluvia from the latrines and open gutters in the court. The general and special smells of Copenhagen are hardly to be matched in any part of Europe. The average number of cubic feet of air to an individual is 213; in very many cases, however, the number is 45 cubic feet or less.

It is not uncommon for two unmarried Danish workmen to take a furnished room between them. Such a room would cost 4 or 5 dollars a-month, say 10*s*. A separate room for one man would be about 6*s*. 6*d*. a-month. Married men take unfurnished lodgings, which consist of two rooms and a kitchen, costing about 6 dollars, or 13*s*. a-month. The furniture and adjuncts are very often hired; all are of a rough description.

Danish victuals are inferior to English victuals. First-rate meat cannot be procured in Copenhagen at any price. Rye bread is universally eaten, and it seems to be an unobjectionable species of food—most Englishmen, prejudice apart, would prefer it to town bakers' bread. Victuals are, on the whole, cheaper here than in England, but our large penny eating-halls provide meals which cannot be procured in Denmark at anything like our rates. An operative's daily expenditure for victuals, beer or Danish brandy, light, &c., would, in Copenhagen, come to about 1*s*6*d*. a-day.

Danish cookery is inferior and wasteful. The workmen's wives are not good economists. They generally buy at the worst shops, purchasing very small quantities at a time, such as $\frac{1}{4}$lb. of butter, a pennyworth of potatoes, 20 or 30 pieces of turf.

The complaint is heard that the operatives are extravagant in their clothing. This means that, not satisfied with making a respectable appearance suitable to his position, the Danish workman is anxious to pass for a gentleman on Sundays and holidays. As the prevalent style of dress here is rather poor, he may easily obtain this undesirable object of his ambition, but the hat and

clothes necessary for the occasion do not properly belong to a workman's wardrobe.

The operative's indispensable clothing would cost him about 3*l.* or 4*l.* a-year. Adding this sum to his requisite expenditure of other sorts, we get the result that he can hardly subsist on less than 5 dollars a-week, an amount which the majority of Danish workmen cannot earn. All the above figures apply to single men; but it is assumed that a wife will support herself and children—an unsatisfactory assumption, seeing that she can only, under ordinary circumstances, make 1*s.* a-day, with her food.

It is not, then, surprising that the Danish operative's position should be generally painted in gloomy colours. An authoritative writer has lately asserted that of 10 old and decayed workmen, 9 have to go to the parish for relief. This is, no doubt, a mere conjectural fact, but it is certain that, in 1867, out of 1,574 persons in the Copenhagen Workhouse one-half were artizans. In the same year about one inhabitant in four of the population of Copenhagen received public relief of some kind or other. In the poor quarter of Christianshavn, out of 15,000 inhabitants 5,000 were receiving parish relief, and probably 2,500 more were receiving private charity. In 1867 the Parochial Poor Expenditure was 66,000*l.*, and the private expenditure (computed) above 11,000*l.*, being at the rate of $3\frac{1}{2}$ dollars a head for population against $2\frac{1}{2}$ dollars as the average rate ten or twelve years ago. These figures are not encouraging; they are completed by the fact that in the Danish capital there has been of late a disproportionate increase of crime in general, of begging, and of illegitimate births. Of the state of things in other towns, I find no authoritative accounts, but complaints are general, and there seems good ground for believing that the towns of Denmark have fallen somewhat behind in that rapid course of improvement which has marked the recent history of Denmark as a whole. Should the fact be verified, it might be illustrated by the case of the decay of the English provincial towns after the redistribution of land, consequent on the suppression of the Religious Houses.

A consideration of the above details gives, perhaps,

fresh reason for the conclusion that the material position of the Danish operative is decidedly inferior to that of his fellow in England. Whether he can be said to enjoy superior advantages in another sort, may be discovered from the following section.

9. *Intellectual, Professional, and Political Characteristics.*

Denmark has no Mechanics' Institutes, but their place is taken by mixed associations, of which there are two in the capital, and about twenty in the provinces.

The "Workman's Union" was founded in 1860 on the ruins of an older society (itself the issue of two previous societies), which had become the centre of a political agitation, and ultimately collapsed. The Union is a sort of club. It has about 2,500 members, 70 per cent. of whom may belong to the working class, the rest being persons of every grade of society, who may be considered as honorary subscribers. From 200 to 300 operatives may be seen in the building after work hours, reading books and newspapers, or playing at chess or draughts. There is a library of 5,500 volumes, and refreshments can be procured at a bar. Lectures on historical, scientific, and artistic subjects are given weekly by the most eminent local celebrities. On such occasions from 500 to 800 persons attend. The society has not yet built a house, but having now a capital of 5,500*l.* it will shortly be able to do so. Connected with the Union is the Building Society above-named, likewise a Friendly Society with 800 members. The Union publishes a weekly journal, and there are drawing, language, mathematical, writing classes, &c., for the use of members. The weekly subscription is $1\frac{3}{4}d.$, for the classes $\frac{1}{2}d.$ an hour is charged.

The "Industrial Union" is a similar institution, with perhaps a more marked middle-class character. This society holds weekly exhibitions, and makes grants of money for general industrial objects. The library and lecture arrangements are much the same as those of the other society.

These clubs have naturally formed a bond between the operatives and the middle classes. Great influence

in this direction has been exercised by M. Rimestad, the founder and president of the Workman's Union, a member of the Folkething, and editor of one of the Copenhagen daily papers.* Owing to the energetic endeavours of this gentleman, the Union has doubtless helped to "further the working classes' enlightenment and cultivation, as the necessary conditions and foundations of their material welfare,"—the words of M. Rimestad's original programme. If the union and its president have deserved well of labour, they have likewise rendered services to capital by taking a strong line against socialism, strikes, and independent working-class action.

For his intellectual and moral qualities the operative of Denmark should be compared with his German, by no means with his French or English, brother in labour. In both Germany and Denmark the artizan enjoys when young the benefit of an admirable system of obligatory popular education. Neither in Germany nor in Denmark does that system produce the ultimate results ascribed to it by theorists who substitute deduction for observation. In Germany and Denmark alike the national character is largely made up of the qualities of phlegm, languor, slowness of comprehension and action. If the Danish operative be more sober and more moral than the German, he is also less industrious and less frugal. No fact in my Report is more certain than that the Dane has yet to learn the meaning of the word *work;* of endurance and thoroughness he has seldom an adequate notion. This is why the Swedish artizan can so often take the bread from his mouth. A respectable Danish periodical says that competent employers of labour "who have had opportunities of comparing Danish and foreign workmen, admit that our labour price is low, but maintain that our wages are high when measured by the work which the Danish workman performs." Opinions like this speak volumes to any one who knows the depths of Danish self-satisfaction.

Operatives who listen to lectures on Pericles and Pitt must evidently have a considerable share of the faculty

* The Copenhagen papers are very cheap and very good. The Danes write admirably on all subjects except Art.

of intellectual appreciation. That any large number of Danish carpenters and tailors actually care for such high topics I cannot believe. I do not, however, doubt that men of the better sort constantly read books of travels, Danish history, and, above all, translations of English novels and stories, especially those of Dickens. It is not pretended that there are many, or even any, mathematical or severely scientific artizans.

To compare the manual skill of the Danish operative with that of the Frenchman or Englishman, would be unfair. For solidity and finish his produce may, however, be put beside second-rate foreign work. There is a technical school in Copenhagen which is frequented by 600 to 700 pupils yearly; both in the capital and in the provinces are Sunday or evening schools for young workmen, where industrial drawing is taught.*

Danish operatives belong, with very few exceptions, to what I may call (though without malignant intention) the Conservative party in politics. The usual antithesis of town and country is reversed here. In Denmark, democracy is a rural not an urban sentiment. The operative has little sympathy with the aims of the radical agrarian party, and he leans towards the object of their special dislike, Scandinavianism. The circumstances cannot yet be foreseen which may detach the working men of Denmark from the wake of the middle classes. All the current of the influences to which they are subject sets strongly against their adoption of the creed of the English or German artizan. M. Rimestad hardly even approves of co-operative stores. The newspaper "Workman," which represents the more advanced notion of "self-help," as opposed or allied to M. Rimestad's doctrine of "enlightenment," gave a very uncomplimentary account of the late Artizans' Congress at Eisenach. It may be argued that "enlightenment" may hereafter suggest to the Danish operative that he may find his account in strikes and trades' unions. At present his ideas hardly run that way, and with his passive, docile temperament, it may require a Cleon or a Lassalle to excite him to new courses. Furthermore, as above explained, until the actual state of the labour market, not only here, but in Sweden, undergoes a

* This point is treated summarily, as it formed the subject of a special Report from Her Majesty's Legation in 1867.

radical change, capital must presumably continue to be able to dictate its own terms.

On reviewing my manuscript, it occurs to me to add, that my opinions on the style of Danish work would doubtless find many contradictions here. It is not my intention to deny that some local articles, as for instance gloves, chairs, tables, sideboards, silver brooches, &c., may be creditable productions for their price; but merely to maintain that in solidity, finish, and elegance, average Danish industrial produce cannot rank with the average work of some neighbouring countries.

(Signed) G. STRACHEY.

No. 19.

Mr. Mathew to the Earl of Clarendon.—(Received February 17.)

My Lord, *Rio de Janeiro, January* 23, 1870.

I HAVE the honour to transmit herewith the Report addressed to me by Mr. Cobbold, Her Majesty's Secretary of Legation, on the position of the artizan and industrial classes in Brazil, in pursuance of your Lordship's Circular despatches of the 30th April and 22nd of November last.

The duty of making this Report apparently escaped Mr. Middleton's recollection, owing to his preparations for his voyage to Caraccas, and it has thus devolved upon his successor, who only arrived in November last, which will, I trust, satisfactorily explain to your Lordship the delay that has occurred.

I have, &c.

(Signed) GEORGE BUCKLEY MATHEW.

Inclosure in No. 19.

Report by Mr. Cobbold on Industrial and Artizan Classes in Brazil.

Rio de Janeiro, January 20, 1870.

THE question of the position of the industrial and artizan classes in Brazil is, or rather ought to be, on a very different footing to what it was some years back, when the wants of the nation were confined almost to the native capacity of the workman, the uncertain communication with Europe rendering the introduction of articles of luxury uncalled for and a mere cypher.

At present, taking the native Brazilian free population into consideration, it may be said that there is neither an industrial nor artizan class—one half of that population are employed in the public service, one quarter in professional occupations, and of the remainder but few enter into trade or commercial pursuits.

The principal artizan and industrial classes consist of Portuguese, Germans, Italians, French, and some English, but no country offers so few advantages for their prosperity; slave labour is so cheap that it is difficult for a good mechanic even to obtain employment at a remunerative rate.

The rate of wages received by artizans may be put down at the highest as follows:—

	Per Diem.				
	s.	*d.*		*s.*	*d.*
Engineers	3	0	to	5	0
Blacksmiths	2	0		3	0
Carpenters	3	0		4	0
Moulders	2	0		2	6

The industrial classes, such as labourers, receive at the rate of 4*l*. to 5*l* per month, without food or lodging; Custom-house and other Government labourers on railroads, &c., from 2*s*. 6*d*. to 3*s*. 6*d*. per diem; tailors, shoemakers, and hatmakers, from 4*s*. to 5*s*. per diem.

No statistics are published under this heading, it is therefore impossible to give any data as to the proportion

these classes bear to the other classes; there is, however, no doubt but that proportion is very limited owing to the increased steam communication with Europe, and the consequent large importation of ready-made goods of every description.

The description of lodgings generally occupied by these classes are very ordinary, with bad accommodation, and very expensive and indifferent living.

With the exception of a few engineers employed by the Government at the arsenals, there are no special contracts made with employers.

Without entering into political matters, it may be inferred that at the present moment there is no opening whatever for the exercise of the skill and enterprise of foreign labouring classes with advantage to themselves; added to a national feeling of jealously of foreign interference, slave-labour may be said to put an effective bar to the labourers' procuring sufficient sustenance to support himself by honest labour in Brazil,—to be instanced by the fact that there are some fifty disappointed emigrants in the city of Rio at the present time, without the means of realizing enough to support themselves and families.

(Signed) T. CLEMENT COBBOLD.

No. 20.

Lord Bloomfield to the Earl of Clarendon.—(*Received January* 31.)

My Lord, *Vienna, January* 25, 1870.

I HAVE the honour to forward herewith a Report, respecting the legal and social position of the working classes in Austria, which Mr. Lytton has drawn up in accordance with the instructions contained in your Lordship's Circular, dated the 30th April, last year.

Mr. Lytton has devoted much time and labour in preparing this Report, and he has had great difficulty in collecting the necessary materials for it, which he has

done partly from the study of official statistics, and partly from communications with working men.

I have, &c.

(Signed) BLOOMFIELD.

Inclosure in No. 20.

Mr. Lytton to Lord Bloomfield.

My Lord, *Vienna, December* 31, 1869.

In accordance with the instructions conveyed to me by the Earl of Clarendon's despatch of the 30th April last, I have now the honour to request your Excellency to be so good as to forward to Her Majesty's Government the following information respecting the legal and social position of the working classes in Austria.

Sources of Information.—This information is collected from two sources—1, Government offices, by which I have been furnished with official statistics; and 2, working men with whom I have conversed, and whose meetings I have attended, with a view to the compilation of the present Report.

Classification.—In most countries the receivers of wages may be divided into three separate classes—1, agricultural labourers; 2, manufacturing labourers; 3, domestic servants. But with the last mentioned class this Report is in no wise concerned; and between the first and the second, the demarcation traced by the industrial condition of the working classes in Austria, is somewhat faint and fluctuating.

In the villages about Vienna, for instance, there is a considerable number of weavers, who are also agricultural labourers, and in the mountainous woodlands of the Waldviertel, from Krems on the Danube, northward to the Bohemian, and westward to the Upper Austrian, frontier, the agricultural labourer, when field work is slack, earns from 60 to 70 kreutzers (about $7\frac{1}{2}d.$ to $8\frac{3}{4}d.$) a-day by weaving. These weavers are able to compete with the power looms, in consequence of their extremely low wages, and the coarse quality of the ware they produce, which cannot be made by machine work.

Considerable quantities of cloth stuffs thus manufactured, and of very inferior quality, are not only consumed in Austria, but also exported at low prices to the Danubian Principalities and other parts of Turkey.*

A similar employment of the same hands in agricultural and manufacturing industry is customary in Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia. Large numbers of agricultural labourers in those provinces are also hand weavers. In a social point of view, however, these hand weavers cannot, of course, be included in the great body of manufacturing operatives, with whose ideas, habits, and objects they have nothing in common.

Wages of Agricultural Labour.—In 1867 the average wages of an agricultural labourer in Austria were from 30 to 40 florins a-year (less, that is, than from 3*l.* to 4*l.*), those of the women being from 10 to 30 florins, exclusive, however, of board and lodging, which is provided by the employer.† But owing, probably, in part to the construction of railways, and in part to the general rise in prices, the rate of wages for agricultural labour has risen considerably throughout Austria during the last three years, and is still rising. At present the demand for agricultural labour is greater than the supply.‡

As, however, I do not consider that the condition of the agricultural labourer properly forms part of the subject to which the present Report should be confined, and as I shall have occasion to refer to it in another

* I may mention here that the cultivation of hemp for this manufacture has lately been superseded by the importation of jute, chiefly from Dundee; and that almost all the sacks used for the export trade in flour are now made from jute.

† As a general rule the agricultural labourer is well fed in Austria; and the quantity of food which he has the reputation of consuming has given rise to the proverb—

"Was der pflug gewinnt,
Das foisst der gesind."

("What the plough makes, the ploughman takes.")

I know not in what class of industry, if not the agricultural, should be included the bargemen of the Danube, Drave, Save, Inn, Enns, Mur, Moldau, Ips, &c., who earn from 4*s.* to 6*s.* a-day.

‡ The forests of Lower Austria produce large quantities of turpentine. The civil war in the United States, which, during the years 1862–63, greatly diminished the supply of turpentine from America, drove up the price of Austrian turpentine unusually high. The Government thereupon taxed the produce so heavily that the price immediately fell below the previous standard, and many of the turpentine-gatherers abandoned the harvest rather than pay the tax.

Report on the Tenure and Cultivation of Land in the Austro-Hungarian dominions, I propose, on this occasion, to notice only the legal and social position of the workmen employed in the principal branches of Austrian manufacture. And, first, it will be convenient, I think, to consider generally the legal status of the working classes in Austria.

I.—*Historical Review of the Legal Position of the Working Classes.*

Manufacturing industry is of comparatively modern growth in Austria, which has not long ceased to be a purely agricultural country. It is, therefore, in the social constitution of the agricultural class that we must seek the origin of those ideas and traditions which determined the laws affecting manufacturing industry throughout all the early stages of its development. Many of these laws have been abolished, others are being modified, but some of them remain; and any review of the legal status of the classes employed in manufacturing industry, must necessarily be retrospective.

The application of the feudal system to land and labour lasted in Austria till the year 1848, when it was abolished by revolutionary legislation. Previous to the abolition of it, industry was dependent on Imperial concessions; capital was locked up by the usury laws, and the want of banks; production was protected against competition both at home and abroad, by a high import Tariff and inland taxes. The home markets were isolated from each other by the deficiency of all means of transport. The agricultural class was exclusively composed of those who owned, and those who cultivated the soil. The relations of the latter to the former were those of subjects to sovereigns. Agricultural labour was compulsory. The landlords held Baronial Courts, and exercised civil as well as criminal jurisdiction. These privileges, however, were accompanied by peculiar obligations; for it was incumbent on the proprietors to provide, not only for the secular and religious education, but also for the general health and comfort of the labouring population.

This system, so long as it remained congenial to the spirit of the time, was not so oppressive in practice as it appears to be in theory. It was tempered—in all the German provinces of the Empire, at least—both by the humane and kindly disposition of the German race, the prevalence of the protective principle out of which it had arisen; and the general interest of the feudal seigneurs that their serfs should be in fit condition to render them efficient and cheerful service. It impressed, however, upon all the employers of labour a patriarchal, and upon all the employed a subject and protected, character; whilst in such a system the action of the State could not but be paternal to the utmost extent.

During the reign of Maria Theresa and Joseph II, absolute Government practically placed the whole Empire in a state of pupilage. But if, on the one hand, omnipresent official interference grievously impeded the development of trade, on the other hand it certainly proved a salutary corrective to individual selfishness, and exercised, partly by fair, partly by unfair means, on the whole a careful and benevolent guardianship over the separate interests of different classes. Before condemning the application of such a system to the Government of an Empire constituted like that of Austria, it must be ascertained whether there be any other equally capable of maintaining impartial authority over the conflicting passions and interests of seventeen hostile nationalities. And to this question experience, as yet, provides no answer. For, although many ingenious substitutes for personal Government have been tried in Austria, none of them hitherto appears to have achieved practical success.

Be that as it may, however, on the system above described a whole school of politicians was formed. That school included amongst its disciples the most eminent Statesmen, and the most efficient officials. These latter, as overseers and administrators of factories, and mines, and other industrial enterprises, retained their official rank in the hierarchy of a great bureaucracy, and carried out in the workshop the principles to which they had been trained in the bureau.

Here it must be mentioned, that the great landed proprietors were in many provinces the only manufacturers on a large scale. To the organization of manufacturing industry they also brought the principles and traditions acquired from the administration of landed

property; and it is obvious that they could at least have no inducement to be more careless of the comfort of their factory hands than of that of their field labourers.

To this fact must be added the circumstance, that the State itself happened to be not only one of the largest proprietors, but also one of the chief manufacturers in the Empire. In addition to its salt, tobacco, and powder monopolies, it carried on other important industries. It was the greatest manufacturer of porcelain, paper, and chemicals. It possessed the largest mining property in every province; and it consequently extended to the working classes employed in manufacture the application of that paternal and protective system which it adopted in all other departments of its administrative activity.

Out of these conditions arose the institution of the "Genossenschaft," that ancient hierarchy of labour which furnished Goethe with a framework for his great allegory of human education. The "Genossenschaft," or guild, is an institution 800 years old. The laws on which it reposes have been so far modified that the "Genossenschaften" are now no longer close corporations. They are still, however, compulsory associations, to which every Austrian workman is under legal obligation to belong.

It is for the abolition of these compulsory "Genossenschaften" that the Austrian working classes have lately been agitating. The demand is one of the most reasonable and practical they have yet put forward, and will, I doubt not, be granted by the Imperial Legislature in the course of its next session.

A glance at the constitution of an Austrian "Genossenschaft" will show that the compulsory character of these societies is an anachronism.

II.—*Constitution of "Genossenschaften."*

Every trade has its own "Genossenschaft," to which every member of it, whether employer or employed, is bound by law to belong. The members of each "Genossenschaft" are distributed into three classes, of upper, lower, and middle rank:

1. The Apprentice.
2. The Workman.
3. The Master.

If a young man desires to earn his livelihood by practising any known trade, the law obliges him to enroll himself in the "Genossenschaft" of the trade he selects. He can only enter it as an apprentice. For the inscription of his name in that capacity on the books of the "Genossenschaft" he is charged 3 florins (a little less than 6*s.*). Of these 3 florins, two are claimed for the contribution paid by each "Genossenschaft" to the Chambers of Commerce and Industry for the Sunday-schools and weekly lectures which they provide for the instruction of apprentices. The remaining florin goes to the funds of the society itself. A master is then assigned by the "Genossenschaft" to the apprentice; or, rather, the apprentice is assigned to a master, with whom he contracts to serve without wages for two, three, or five years. In many cases a payment varying from 50 to 100 florins (5*l.* to 10*l.*) for the practical instruction in his trade, which the apprentice expects to receive from his master, is made by the former to the latter. The apprentice is generally lodged and boarded at the master's expense. But this is a matter of private arrangement. The guild only registers the contract, and decides how it shall be interpreted in case of dispute. By that admirable measure the new School Bill of 1869, the age of fourteen has been fixed as the earliest at which a youth can legally bind himself apprentice.

When the apprentice has served his term, and can produce the required certificates of proficiency from the schools he has attended, his probationary period is over; his master proclaims him a free member of the Guild, just as a mediæval baron would have dubbed his squire a knight, and he is registered as a workman on the books of the "Genossenschaft." For the act of registration he pays 3 florins (about 5*s.* 6*d.*) to the Guild, and 50 kreutzers (5*d.*) for the stamp of his patent or certificate. Once a workman, he pays 70 kreutzers (about 1*s.* 2*d.*) every quarter to the "Genossenschaft," in return for which he is entitled to gratuitous board, lodging, and medical care at the hospital during sickness, in case of ill-health. He has also the choice of being, in the same case, supported and provided with medical assistance at home by the "Genossenschaft," at a charge of 3*s.* 6*d.* a week. Until the year 1868, the "Genossenschaften" were compelled by law to pay the hospital for its maintenance and medical treatment during illness of every

one of their invalided workmen, whether these workmen had or had not paid their 70 kreutzers per quarter to the sick relief fund of the "Genossenschaft."

In the above-mentioned year,* however, the "Genossenschaften" were relieved of this obligation, on the ground that it was a premium upon the improvidence of the workman. The "Genossenschaften" of Vienna alone contain about 100,000 workmen.

Every workman who has passed through the prescribed initiatory process, can, on his own demand, accompanied by payment of the necessary fees, obtain from his "Genossenschaft" promotion to the rank of master, which is the highest in the industrial hierarchy constituted by law. He then pays 20 florins (a little less than 2*l.*) to the "Musterlade" or master's chest, 6 florins (11*s.* 6*d.*) for his stamped diploma, and 2 florins 63 kreutzers (about 4*s.* 8*d.*) town rates.

The whole number of masters in each "Genossenschaft" elect from their own body thirty representatives. These thirty representatives elect again from amongst themselves a chairman, two vice-chairmen, and fifteen select committee men. The Chairman, or "Vorstand," has a salary of from 200 to 600 florins (20*l.* to 60*l.*) a-year, and the Vice-Chairmen each a salary of about half that amount, paid by the "Genossenschaft." The Chairman and Vice-Chairman, with their Committee or Council of fifteen, administer the funds of the whole Corporation. This Board is bound to keep accurate accounts of all expenses annually incurred on behalf of masters, men, or apprentices. The returns of the Vienna Tailors' "Genossenschaft" for the last three years, will give a fair idea of the average annual activity of one of these Corporations.

A. Appeals, on account of disputes between masters and men, settled without reference to the Common Law Courts by the Arbitration Court of the Tailors' "Genossenschaft":—

About £115.

	Cases.
In 1866	380
In 1867	395
In 1868	480
Three years' total	1,255

* Regrenning's Circular of March 30, 1839. 12234.

B. Relief to masters and masters' widows and orphans—

About £400.

In 1866 persons relieved	1,481
In 1867 „ „	1,537
In 1868 „ „	1,568
Three years' total	4,586

C. Relief to sick workmen—

About £130.

	Fl.	kr.
In 1866 sums expended	315	90
In 1867 „ „	360	80
In 1868 „ „	734	0
Three years' total	1,410	70

D. Benefit and benevolent societies assisted—

About £130.

	Fl.	kr.
In 1866 with	554	50
In 1867 „	383	80
In 1868 „	477	10
Three years' total	1,415	40

E. Hospital fees for sick workmen and apprentices—

About £3,200 and odd.

	Fl.	kr.
In 1866 paid	9,366	47
In 1867 „	16,744	54
In 1868 „	6,377	8
Three years' total	32,488	9

F. Loans granted to co-operative societies founded by members of the trade—

	Fl.
In 1867	1,000
In 1868	1,000

(£100, less the exchange.)

G. Expenses of the office for placing workmen with masters and finding employment for workmen, 1,000 florins per annum.

II. Support of the trade school established within the last three years, 500 florins (about 50*l.*) per annum.

I. Contributions to the Schools of the Chambers of Commerce and Industry—

From £650 to £700.

	Fl.	kr.
In 1866	171	78
In 1867	291	48
In 1868	245	29
Three years' total	708	55

K. Contributions received from the apprentices, and transmitted to the Municipal Exchequer (for educational expenses)—

About £110.

	Fl.
In 1866	350
In 1867	392
In 1868	406
Three years' total	1,148

L. Salary of the Corporation's own medical officer, 600 florins (not quite 60*l.*) per annum.

M. Medical assistance provided by the Corporation itself—

	Cases.
In 1866	1,225
In 1867	1,303
In 1868	1,459
Three years' total	3,987

N. Tickets for bath and physic, issued annually, to the value of from 400 to 500 florins (40*l.* to 50*l.*)*

I have heard from the representatives of the working-classes at Vienna great and general complaint of the abuses to which their system of "Genossenschaften" gives rise in regard to the treatment of apprentices.† And although it is only indirectly that the nature of these complaints can claim notice in any survey of the legal status of the working classes, yet this will

* If the exchange were at par, the value of 10 florins would be 1*l* ; but as the exchange fluctuates daily, it is impossible to assign any fixed equivalent in English money to the florin.

† So far as I can ascertain, there is no hostility between workmen and apprentices in Austria. On the contrary, the interests of the apprentices are warmly advocated by the workmen.

probably be the most convenient place in which to record them.

The workmen complain, on behalf of the apprentices, that these youths are treated by many of their masters not only altogether as domestic servants, but also as servants of all work and household drudges. The lads sleep generally (I am told by their friends) in little cribs filled only with straw, and crowded one above the other like berths in a ship. Their working day begins in summer at 3 A.M. and ends at 8 P.M.; in winter, at 6 A.M. till 7 P.M., with only an hour's repose for dinner at noon, and a quarter of an hour, each meal, for breakfast and supper. The breakfast consists of a weak soup, described by one of its recipients as hot salt and water, with a lump of black bread in it; the dinner, a small allowance of meat and vegetables; the supper, vegetables and a cup of coffee. They complain of being employed during the greater part of this long day's work in waiting on their master's wife or children, cleaning his kitchen, scouring his floors, blacking his boots, running his errands, &c., so that, after four or five years' hard and unremunerated drudgery, they find themselves wholly or comparatively ignorant of the trade to which they have been apprenticed. It is asserted that many lads who, at the expiration of their apprenticeship, are thus thrown upon their own resources, unprovided with any adequate intellectual or other capital, fall into vice and mischief; and certainly the complaints of the Chambers of Commerce themselves prove that many of the small trades can with difficulty be compelled to allow their apprentices sufficient opportunities for completing the educational course prescribed by the Chambers. Complaint is also made by the workmen that many of these small tradesmen, by employing and overworking an excessive number of apprentices, whose work is unpaid and whose board and lodging costs their masters next to nothing, make large profits by the production of articles at a price which undersells the legitimate produce of the whole trade, spoils its market, and artificially depreciates the general rate of wages.

My personal impression is, that all these complaints are well founded in particular instances—but only in particular instances. In no part of the globe is the small tradesman a model either of public virtue or active

humanity. But I believe the treatment of apprentices by the great majority of their masters in Austria to be not only humane but most conscientiously solicitous of the moral and physical welfare of these youths. This belief is, I think, fairly supported—first, by the great number of excellent trade schools which have been spontaneously established by many of the Austrian "Genossenschaften," and at which a sound system of technical instruction is provided, free of all charge, for their apprentices ;* and secondly, by the great number of first-rate hands turned out by these "Genossenschaften :" workmen who can always command high wages, both in Germany and throughout the United States.

Another general objection made to the principle of "Genossenschaften" is, on the ground of the prevention being better than cure,—that the money they deduct from the workmen's wages, with a view to his temporary maintenance and medical treatment when he falls ill, might, from a sanitary point of view, be more profitably employed by the workman himself in the purchase of better food and lodging; and that, in any case, he alone is the legitimate judge of his own interests in this respect, and should have the free disposal of his own wages.

I have endeavoured to indicate the general character of an Austrian "Genossenschaft," because, although I anticipate the early abolition of the law of compulsory association, it is one which appears to have exercised upon the character of the working classes of this country an influence likely to survive its own existence.

The principle of State protection which it illustrates has doubtless secured to the working class in Austria a certain amount of comfort and consideration for which the same class in other countries has had to depend exclusively on its own efforts. But, on the other hand, it is probably owing to the protracted application of this

* These schools, besides teaching the theory and practice of the trades in connection with which they are established, give instruction in the German language to their non-German pupils from Bohemia and elsewhere. Here, however, it must be observed that the working classes of Austria are almost entirely German. The schools above mentioned are largely and voluntarily attended by workmen as well as apprentices. The Viennese turners and joiners, the smiths of Styria, and the meerschaum carvers of the Tyrol and Upper Austria, have a high reputation for good workmanship throughout Germany.

principle that the working class in Austria has no very definite consciousness either of its own wants or its own resources, and that it is somewhat dangerously at the mercy of political quacks.

Other Laws affecting the Position of the Working Classes.—It now remains, before attempting any detailed account of the separate trades, to describe the other laws which help to determine the legal status of the working classes in this country.

Law respecting Combinations in restraint of Trade.—And, in the first place, as regards the view taken by the law of all associations for acting "in restraint of trade," it is to be observed that unions, whether of workmen or employers, for the purpose either of raising or lowering the rate of wages, are at present illegal in Austria.

Paragraph 479 of the General Law on this subject runs thus :—"Combinations on the part of tradesmen, manufacturers, and industrial contractors, for the purpose of effecting a change in the conditions of labour or wages, are trespasses ('Ueberbrettung'), and punishable accordingly."

§ 481 of the same Law says :—"Combinations of colliers, workmen, apprentices, &c., for the purpose of organizing strikes, or otherwise forcibly raising the rate of wages, are trespasses ('Ueberbrettung'), and punishable accordingly."

It will be observed that lock-outs are hereby declared to be as illegal as strikes, and that the law applies to masters as well as men. But as the employers of labour are as such in a permanent and inevitable combination to keep down wages, whilst the receivers of wages can only raise them by means of combinations specially organized for that purpose, the law has hardly in its effect that equality which appears in its terms; for, whilst throwing, with impartial hand, precisely the same ounce of authority into each scale, it takes no account of the fact that one of the two scales is already more heavily weighted than the other.

Law of Contract.—This law is also destined, I believe, to be abolished early next year.

Any workman refusing to work before the term of his contract has expired is punishable with fine and imprisonment. The local authorities, however, if satisfied by adequate evidence that the continuance of labour would

be prejudicial to the health of the workman, are empowered by the Law of 1827 to relieve him of the objection to fulfil his contract.

Working Hours.—Except in the case of minors, the hours of labour are fixed by contract between the employers and the employed.

Factory Rules.—The law requires that the rules of the establishment shall be publicly fixed for convenient reference on the walls of every factory and workshop. These rules must first have been approved by the local authorities. They must contain a clear statement of—

(*a.*) The number and different classes of the workmen employed on the establishment, and their assistants, &c.

(*b.*) The order and duration of working hours.

(*c.*) The dates at which accounts are to be sealed between masters and men.

(*d.*) The rights or privileges defining the authority of the overseer.

(*e.*) The provision made for the support of the hands in case of sickness or accident.

(*f.*) Fines and reductions of wages.

(*g.*) Discharge.

Employment of Children.—The law prohibits the employment in any factory work or trade of children under the age of ten. Children under twelve years of age are only allowed by law to receive such employment on presentation of a permit from the Chief Magistrate of the commune they belong to. This permit must be applied for by the father or guardian of the child who receives it. The communal authority is only empowered to grant such a permit in cases where a special factory school exists, or where there are special and sufficient reasons which render it impossible for the child to attend the communal school.

These children can only be employed in such work as the authorities declare to be free from all possibility of injury to their health and growth.

Education of the Working Classes.—One of the greatest benefits yet conferred upon the working classes of Austria is the General School Bill of the 14th May, 1869; which renders national education compulsory, and greatly elevates the standard of it.

In accordance with this law, compulsory attendance at school begins with every child at the age of six, and

is continued uninterruptedly to the age of fourteen. But even then (that is to say, at the end of his fourteenth year), the child is only allowed to leave school on production of certified proof that he has thoroughly acquired the full amount of information which this great law fixes as the *sine qua non* minimum of education for every Austrian citizen. The prescribed educational course comprises reading, writing, and arithmetic; a sound knowledge of the native language; history, and chiefly, though not exclusively, that of the native country, embracing the political constitution and general social structure of it; geography, in the same sense; all the more important branches of physical science; geometry (geometrical drawing, &c.); singing; athletic exercises. Children employed in the large factories, or prevented by special circumstances from attending the communal school, may complete or continue their education at any special school supported by their employer; and the employers are authorized to found schools for that purpose. But it is a *sine qua non* condition that all such schools shall provide the full amount and quality of education required by law, and otherwise fulfil all the obligations prescribed by the General School Bill, which subjects every school, whether private or public, to the inspection of the State. In places where a special trade school exists, the employer is bound to send his apprentices to it. In addition to the subjects of instruction above enumerated, every child is simultaneously provided with religious instruction in the creed to which he or she is born. The local ecclesiastical authorities or notables of the church or religious community to which each child belongs are entitled, and indeed bound, by law to provide competent teachers for this purpose. The free selection of the teachers is left entirely to these religious bodies, subject only to the certified proofs which the State exacts of the teacher's proficiency and general character. It is only in the event of the local religious communities declining to avail themselves of the privilege allotted to them by the law, that the State steps in, and undertakes the duty which they refuse to discharge. But this religious instruction, which is altogether denominational and on a footing of impartial equality for all religious sects, is kept by the State carefully apart from the secular education which

is in every case obligatory, and which it is in no case allowed to interfere with or attempt to control. Nor are any private schools tolerated by Government which do not efficiently provide the prescribed amount of secular instruction; although, so long as this condition be fulfilled, the law imposes no limit to the foundation of private educational establishments.

Such is the education now provided in Austria for every child of the working classes. It is needless, and would be painful, to dwell upon the obvious fact of its immense superiority to anything of the kind which yet exists in England.

Employment of Women.—The law enjoins, that in the employment of women, their inferior physical strength and more delicate organization is to be carefully considered. But I doubt if there be any country in Europe where the number of women employed in strong physical labour is larger than in Austria. This perhaps is partly owing to the military conscription; but there must be other causes (the investigation of which would unduly lengthen this Report) enabling female to compete with male labour more successfully in Austria than in most other countries.

Working Hours for Minors.—The working day for persons under 14 years of age is fixed by law at 10 hours, and for all whose age is between 13 and 16, at 12 hours, with relaxation at convenient intervals for meals. The law prohibits the employment of persons under 16 years of age for night work of any kind, except in the case of those trades for which night as well as day work is indispensable; in which case, minors are permitted to undertake night work on condition that these young workmen shall be frequently relieved, and that their night and day work shall be regularly alternated. It is the duty of the local authorities to see that these conditions are duly observed.

Compulsory Provision for Invalided Workmen.—With the arrangements between masters and men for the board and lodging of the latter, the law does not interfere; but for the maintenance of the workman in case of accident or ill-health it enjoins special securities.

The owner of every large factory, for instance, is bound by law to maintain (either with the co-operation of his workmen, or in partnership with other manufacturers, or else, failing such assistance, exclusively at

his own expense) a permanent relief fund for that purpose.

Every "Genossenschaft" is bound by law to make similar provision for all its members in case of sickness, accident, or unmerited pecuniary distress.

The contribution of the workman to this relief fund is fixed by law at 3 per cent. of his wages; and that of the employer at half the workman's contribution for each workman he employs.

In the control over the administration of this fund, the law entitles the workmen to participate.

The law further lays down that, in case of sickness or accident, apprentices are to be treated on the footing of domestic servants: that is to say, they are to receive fourteen days' wages, and their employer is to pay the hospital fees on their behalf for one fortnight.

Board of Conciliation and Courts of Arbitration.—The law of the 14th May, 1869, institutes Arbitration Courts in every important manufacturing town and district.

It is the function of these Courts to settle all disputes respecting wages, continuance of work, fulfilment of contracts, and claims on benefit clubs and relief funds, &c.

Each Court of Arbitration must be composed of at least twelve and at most twenty-four members: one-half of them employers elected by employers, and the other half workmen elected by workmen; each class voting separately.

Workmen sitting on cases judged by these Courts, are paid by the commune for every day's sitting.

In the case of the minor trades which cannot maintain regular Arbitration Courts, the trade laws assign the adjudication of all disputes between masters and men, in the first instance, to the representatives of the trade in which such disputes arise, and in places where the necessary quorum for that purpose cannot be made up by the local representatives of any particular trade, the deficiency is supplied by a certain number of workmen temporarily appointed by the municipal authorities from amongst the most respectable and intelligent members of their class to act as arbitrators in such cases.

Disputes which cannot be settled in this way must be decided by the Common Law Courts; and it is only a court of law which can take cognizance of a claim

raised thirty days after the expiration of a contract to which it refers.

Right of Association.—The legal status of the Austrian working classes in regard to the right of association is somewhat paradoxical.

All co-operative and other purely economical associations amongst the working classes are still restricted by the Union Law of 1852, which was the production of a reactionary Government; whereas, their right to form political societies, and hold political meetings, is regulated by the liberal provisions of the Law of November 15, 1867, and guaranteed by Article 12 of the Constitution of December 21, 1867.

Political Rights.—As regards the general political rights of the working class in Austria, however, it must here be mentioned that the working class is excluded from the suffrage as regards not only the election of representatives to the Provincial and Imperial Legislatures, but also the election of members to the Chambers of Commerce and Industry. It follows, of course, *à fortiori*, that workmen, as such, are not eligible to set in Parliament, and it must be added that workmen cannot serve as jurymen.

Recent and Prospective Legislation concerning the Working Classes.—The working class of this country now demands admission to the suffrage and the jury box. But the School Bill of 1869, a masterpiece of legislation, which, if fairly carried out, will eventually secure to the working class in Austria a far higher education than is yet enjoyed by the same class in any other country (unless it be Prussia?), has scarcely yet come into operation; and no one well acquainted with the peculiar political situation of this most complicated Empire, and the low degree of instruction hitherto attained by that portion of its population which is employed in manual labour, can be astonished at the unanimity with which this premature demand is rejected by the public opinion of all the other classes of the community.

Those other demands of the working class which do not directly concern their special practical interests in a class point of view will be more conveniently considered in a subsequent section of this Report.

Meanwhile, the measures lately introduced, and those which are in course of preparation by the present Govern-

ment, for the general amelioration of the position of the working class may here be enumerated.

They are,—the abolition of the Usury Laws, restricting interest on loans; the abolition of imprisonment for debt; the establishment of Arbitration Courts (already described); the abolition of "Genossenschaften," or compulsory Trade Unions; the legalization of voluntary Trade Unions, for raising wages, whether by strikes or other means not subversive of the public peace or otherwise generally illegal; Bills for facilitating personal credits to workmen; for the regulation of working hours for women and minors in factories; for the appointment of factory inspectors, and improved sanitary regulations in factories; for the punishment of employers neglecting the prescribed securities for the health or safety of their workmen; and last, not least, the National School Bill of this year, already described.

I trust that the foregoing brief survey of the general legal status of the whole working class in Austria will have obviated the necessity of frequent explanation, as regards the legal position of various associations and institutions connected with the particular trades which I now proceed to review.

II.—*Miners.*

The remarks applied generally in the foregoing sketch to the whole working class of this country, find special illustration in the management and working of Austrian mines.

The State, in its double capacity, both as supreme guardian of the public safety, and, privately, as the largest owners of mineral property, has furnished the model which is practically followed by all the other proprietors of mines in regard to the treatment of their workmen.

The character of this model has been determined by the principles and practice of paternal Government; and, consequently, notwithstanding the incompleteness of legislative enactments respecting mining operations, the mining population is on the whole exempt from most of those causes of complaint which have been removed by special sanitary laws in other countries.

With regard to working hours, wages, children's labour, sanitary precautions, the board, lodging, safety, and general health of the workman, the management of savings' banks and benefit clubs, &c., the only conditions laid down by Austrian law are as follows :—

§ 171. Safety regulations.

(*a.*) All excavations must be clearly indicated and enclosed above ground ("Tagbau").*

(*b.*) Effectual modes of support (timbering, walling, &c.) to be given to all deep shafts liable to fall in.

(*c.*) Proper boarding over all climbing shafts 10 fathoms deep, securing of the means of descent (ladders, stairs, steps, &c.), and daily examination of the vehicles.

(*d.*) Removal of all tools likely to imperil the safety of the workman.

(*e.*) Payment of particular attention to those parts of the mine which are exposed to danger of fire.

(*f.*) Precautions for proper ventilation.

(*g.*) Use of Davy's safety lamp.

§ 172. All injury to persons or property occasioned by neglect of the necessary precautions, on the part either of proprietors or workmen, are punishable according to paragraphs 335, 336, 431, 432, 458, 459, of the General Penal Code.

Service Regulations.

§ 200. Regulations defining the respective duties of foremen and workmen on every mine must be drawn up, and approved by the inspectors of mines, acting with the assistance of competent judges. These regulations, when so approved, must be communicated to every workman, and posted up wherever their work is carried on.

They must embrace the following points :—

(*a.*) The duties and privileges of the several classes of workmen, as well as of foremen; the local laws regulating the employment of women and children, and the arrangements prescribed by law for the education of the latter.

* This term generally applies to mines worked on the surface of the soil; but, in the present instance, I think it applies to the mouths of pits and shafts, &c.

(*b.*) The relations between workmen and foremen or overseers.

(*c.*) Duration and distribution of work.

(*d.*) Conduct on and off the premises.

(*e.*) Paying off.

(*f.*) Compensations and relief allowances in case of accident and illness.

(*g.*) Penalties for misconduct.

(*h.*) Discharge, refusal to work, or termination of contract without notice (*i.e.*, the course to be followed in such cases).

Coalition.

The common Penal Code (§§ 479, 481) defines the penalties incurred by miners and shed-workmen, who, by striking work, or refractory conduct during work, or other similar means, endeavour, or incite others to endeavour, to obtain an increase of wages or other advantages.*

Payment of Wages.

§ 206. Every mine contractor is bound by law to settle with his workmen (at least) quarterly. Whenever a workman is discharged he must be paid at once. No outstanding claim on the part of masters against men can legally invalidate or qualify the abovementioned obligation.

§ 207. The stoppage of a workman's wages by his employer for payment of debt contracted by the workman to a third person is illegal.

Certificate of Discharge.

§ 208. Every workman, on receiving his discharge, must be furnished with a certificate stating the class of workmen he belongs to; the club of which he has been a

* It has already been stated in the preceding section of this Report, however, that coalition for the purpose of raising wages by strikes, if necessary—in short, trades unions similar in such respects to those existing, but not yet legalized in England—will receive legal sanction by the Bill about to be laid before the Legislature next year.

member; the length of time during which he has subscribed to the same; and, finally, the day on which he entered and quitted the service of his employer.

§ 209. Workmen who have once worked in any Austrian mine cannot obtain employment in other mines without producing their certificate of discharge.*

Superannuation Clubs ("Caises de Retraite").

§ 210. Enjoins provision by means of such institutions for the relief of distressed miners or their widows and orphans. Ever owner of a mine is bound by law to establish one of these banks, either by himself, or conjointly with other proprietors and contractors.

§ 211. Every overseer, foreman, and workman, is bound by law to belong and subscribe to the club formed by the mine at which he is employed.

§ Special statutes must be drawnup for every such club or bank ("Bruderlade") by the owners or directors of the mine with which it is connected, acting with the assistance of a select committee of the workmen. These statutes must be submitted for approval to the inspectors of mines.

§ 113. The statutes must lay down regulations respecting—

(*a.*) Implements to be provided for, and rules to be observed by, the workmen. Conditions of admission.

(*b.*) Amount of subscription and mode of payment.

(*c.*) Amount of relief thereby secured.

(*d.*) Conditions under which claims for relief are entertained and satisfied.

(*e.*) Management and responsible publication of accounts.

(*f.*) Share allotted to workmen in the control of these and other matters.

(*g.*) Relations between the amalgamated clubs.

(*h.*) Disposal of funds in case of suspension of mining operations.

§ 214. Owners of mines which are as yet unconnected with any bank or club of the abovementioned description are bound by law to furnish to their sick or disabled workmen relief upon the scale laid down by law for the

* I anticipate, however, that the law on this subject will also be modified or abolished in the course of next year.

observance of masters towards workmen in the ordinary "Genossenschaften."

Inspection.

§ 220. The inspectors of mines are to see that the owners and contractors of mines comply with the general obligations imposed upon them by the law respecting the lading and working of mines, &c.

§ 221. The regular inspection of mines is to be conducted *ex officio*, the local authorities being bound—

(*a.*) To take care that the mines in their district are duly inspected and reported upon by persons appointed for that purpose;

(*b.*) And that all necessary measures be taken for securing general obedience to the mining laws, &c.

It is obvious that the general and indeterminate character of the above-cited enactments leaves it practically *ad libitum* to the authorities to do everything or nothing in the matter to which they refer. And, in point of fact, the action of the officials who are charged with carrying out these enactments is very much in proportion to their social position and personal character.

The traditional customs and habits of various districts have also a very determining influence on the practice pursued in the management of the mines therein situated. The letter of the law must be regarded rather as the result than as the cause of established custom. But the Imperial Decree states that official intervention, "in the interests no less of the owners of mines than of their workmen, must be specially directed to the removal of grievances in regard to insufficient wages, neglect of the sick and disabled, excessive penalties, &c., more especially as they lead to a demoralization generally prejudicial to mining interests."

What may be called the official patronage of mining interests, however, is, in practice, rendered less objectionable than it must appear from a theoretical point of view to every professor of the *laisser-faire* political philosophy, by the fact that all the Imperial authorities who are charged with carrying it out, not excepting the members of those tribunals which are specially concerned with mining cases, are by elaborate study and practical experience, if not by social position, miners themselves, and fully competent to bring to the decision of all ques-

tions affecting the practical interests of the mining population an extensive and thorough technical knowledge of all the points at issue.

Having thus indicated the general character of the laws which specially refer to the management and working of mines, I shall now illustrate the results of them so far as the yet imperfect data of official statistics will serve for that purpose.

Employment of Women and Children.—Infractions of the law respecting the education of children are punishable by fine, in accordance with § 247 of the General Mining Laws.

The employment of women and children in mines is conditional on the nature of the mine and the custom of the district in which it is situated.

The number of women and children employed upon mines in the year 1867 amounted to 13,006, the total number of hands being 117,362.

The following Table will show in what proportion the two great divisions of the Empire contributed to that total :—

	Women and Children.	Men.
Cisleithan Provinces	5,921 ..	58,614
Hungary	7,085 ..	35,742
Total	13,006 ..	104,356
Grand total	117,362	

In the same year the total number of workmen employed in salt mines amounted to 12,771 hands.

The capital of mining, life insurance, superannuation and relief funds was estimated at—

	Florins.		£
Cisleithan Provinces	4,288,194	= circa	342,052
Hungary	2,484,041	„	198,720
Total	6,772,235	„	540,772

The capital of the same institutions existing in connection with the salt mines, which are all State property, was estimated at—

	Florins.		£
Cisleithan Provinces	301,248	= circa	24,496
Hungary	198,697	„	15,892
Total	499,945	„	40,388

The collective capital, therefore, of this section of the Austrian working classes was, in 1867, 7,272,180 florins, or about 581,160*l.*

The capital of the clubs established in the Cisleithan Provinces (viz., 4,288,194 florins) was furnished by 378 mines, representing 77,163 workmen. Full official statistics in respect to these clubs in all parts of the Empire have not yet been completed; but it would appear that on the 391 mines (representing 78,108 workmen) from which statistical information has been received 98·80 per cent. has been expended in compensation or relief, in cases of accident, ill-health, and death. The Hungarian statistics on this point are still incomplete. The mode of compensation is usually decided by the clubs themselves. There are cases, however, in which one particular class of compensation is provided exclusively by the proprietor. Thus, for instance, on 12 mines (with 3,804 workmen) the medical treatment of the sick is provided for by the owners of the mines; on 18 mines (2,709 workmen) the owners provide for the maintenance of the sick and injured; on 6 mines (1,118 workmen) the owners provide generally for incapacitated workmen; on 8 mines (2,197) the provision for widows and orphans is entirely at the charge of the owners; and on 3 mines (260 workmen) the funeral and burial expenses for deceased workmen are defrayed by the owners of the mines. In all these cases the clubs have only to provide claims for recognized by their regulations upon other grounds.

The club funds are made up by voluntary subscriptions from the owners, and forced subscriptions from the workmen. The contribution of the owners to the funds of the club are in the shape either of a fixed sum of money, or else a per-centage on the net profits of the mine, or in some cases the continued payment of wages for a portion of the time during which the invalided workman is unable to work. The medical and hospital expenses moreover are generally paid by the proprietors; and it is also customary to pay into the club cash-box for the general benefit of all the hands, fines levied upon particular workmen for infraction of rules, &c.

The rate of the workmen's subscriptions varies in amount, and is generally regulated by that of their wages. Thus—

1	per cent. is paid in	4	mines by	671	workmen.
$1\frac{1}{4}$	„	3	„	106	„
$1\frac{1}{2}$	„	4	„	1,003	„
$1\frac{3}{4}$	„	1	„	97	„
2	„	33	„	4,500	„
2	„	5	„	1,061	„
3	„	82	„	10,147	„
4	„	87	„	24,333	„
5	„	39	„	11,575	„
$5\frac{3}{10}$	„	1	„	18	„
6	„	8	„	715	„
7	„	4	„	822	„

In return for these subscriptions, the respective clubs have provided—

Payment of medical treatment to	41,787	workmen.
Wages during sickness ..	„ 68,049	„
Provision	„ 62,999	disabled workmen.
Pensions and allowances..	„ 58,113	workmen's widows and orphans.
Burial expenses ..	„ 57,846	families of deceased workmen.

Working Hours.—The hours of work are regulated by the service regulations, regard being had to the nature of the mine and its approaches. The law does not, on this point, interfere with the freedom of contract; and authoritative statistical information in regard to the actual duration of working hours in mines and foundries, &c., is entirely wanting. The want is only partially supplied by the Reports of the Chambers of Commerce; but I believe complaints of overwork to be exceedingly rare, if not altogether unknown, amongst Austrian miners. In the steel-casting factories wages are paid by cwt. produced. In the iron and lead refineries wages are also paid by weight; and the average length of labour at the blast furnaces is 12 hours per diem. At puddling, which is the severest physical labour, the men only work six hours at a time, with long intervals of repose between the different loadings of the furnace. At the end of every 6 hours one set of workmen is relieved by another. A rest every 12 hours is allowed in welding and rolling. For engine waiters, and workmen employed in the refining forges, the work is from 8 to $8\frac{1}{2}$ hours for every 4 "loupes" or blooms, with a quarter of an hour's rest between each bloom. The day's work in this department is reckoned at $10\frac{1}{2}$ or 11 hours on the average. Every

bloom or "loupe" is about 2 cwts., being the product of 2 cwts. and $\frac{7}{10}$ of pig iron. The loss of weight, therefore, is 26 per cent.

Wire drawers and benders, pin-makers, rollers and water-drawers, work for 12 hours, stopping for breakfast and dinner. Coal-workers get their breakfast and dinner hour free when they work for 12 hours, but not when they only work for 8 hours. The average length of the working day, therefore, does not exceed $10\frac{1}{2}$ or 11 hours.

Board and Lodging.—The arrangements under this head are quite voluntary. The service regulations do not force the masters on the one hand to provide food for the men, nor the men on the other hand to purchase food of the masters. The evils of the truck-shop system have never existed in Austria.

On many mines, however, the men are fed by the masters in accordance with voluntary mutual arrangement.

The following statistics show the extent of their practice :—

In the Cisleithan Provinces there are 122 mines (representing 36,754 miners, *i.e.*, 47 per cent. of the whole class), on which the masters furnish cheap provisions (which, of course, the workmen are free to purchase or not as they please). The Imperial mines (27 in number, employing 7,611 men) also furnish provisions at a fixed price ("limito-price") which, when food (as now) is dear, is considerably under the market price. On 8 mines (2,382 men) food is bought wholesale at the market price, and retailed at the same price to the hands.

On 60 mines (21,731 men) market purchases are resold at market prices. Co-operative societies for the purchase of provisions are established ("Consumvereine") on 7 mines (1,384 men), and cheap eating-houses on 3 mines (1,280 men).

Patches of ground are given gratis to the workmen for the cultivation of potatoes on 41 mines, and on 6 mines for the cultivation of garden produce.

On 23 other mined ground for similar purposes is let at a low rent-charge.

On 222 mines (57,793 workmen) lodging is provided by the owners.

Wherever workmen's dwelling-houses are established

they are occupied by the workmen free of rent, or at a nominal rent.

Wherever no such buildings are established the men receive allowance for rent; 143 mines give lodging gratis, and 52 at a low rent. Allowances for lodging are given on 11 mines. Common dormitories are established on 3 mines. The English cottage system on 13 mines. Houses where temporary lodging is given gratis on 10 mines.

Education. — As already mentioned, education in Austria is compulsory. But it must here be added that it is not yet gratuitous. The education of the children employed in or connected with the mines is therefore either paid by the proprietors of the mines who subscribe to the neighbouring parish school for the children of all their workmen, or else by the clubs which undertake that expense.

Sometimes, moreover, schools are established on the works at the cost of either the owners or the clubs.

On 22 mines (9,783 men) the school expenses are paid by the proprietors. On 22 other mines (3,564 men) by the clubs, and on 5 mines (671 men) by the clubs and proprietors conjointly.

The schools on the works are either weekly, Sunday, or Repetition* ("Wiederholungs") schools.

On 15 mines (9,481 men) the owners support schools of the first-named class. The clubs support them on 2 mines (564 men); drawing and Sunday schools are supported by the proprietors on 13 mines (10,882 men).

This is decidedly, at present, the most defective part of the whole organization of the working classes. The total number of mines on which funds are provided for educational purposes is only 67 (21,192 workmen); and, whilst 98·80 per cent. of the mining population receive pecuniary assistance for other purposes—47·06 per cent. for board, 70·15 per cent. for lodging—only 37·37 per cent. are provided by their existing organization with the pecuniary means of education, although education is compulsory and the evasion of the law on this subject punishable by fine. This, however, I take to be a purely

* Schools for the re-instruction of those who have failed to attain the prescribed degree of proficiency within the usual period.

transitional state of things, for it must be remembered that the present School Bill is scarcely a year old as yet. Both proprietors and clubs will, doubtless, now give greater attention to the matter of education, and greater development to the organization of funds for educational purposes.

Good schools for adult workmen are also much wanted.

The great mining districts of Styria, Carinthia, Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, and Galicia, are particularly well suited for the establishment of institutions in which miners could receive first-rate technical and scientific instruction; which would, doubtless, greatly improve the quality of their work as well as the character of their class.

Sanitary Condition of the Mining Population.—The sanitary condition of the mining population of this Empire is, on the whole, good. Circumstances are favourable to it, for most of the mines are situated in exceedingly healthy spots. The legal enactments, with regard to sanitary precautions, have already been detailed. Experience proves that the majority of accidents is due to the carelessness of the victims themselves. In the year 1857, only a single accident occurred which was proved, on investigation, to have been occasioned by the neglect of the proprietor.

Austro-Hungarian statistics for the year 1867 show a total of 1,136 accidents amongst 117,362 miners. Of this total 807 happened in the countries represented by the Reichsrath. The Cisleithan Provinces, therefore, contributed about 1 per cent. of the whole number of accidents in the course of that year.

Of these 809 accidents, 428 were slight, 196 severe, 183 fatal: respectively 53 per cent., 24 per cent., and 23 per cent.

Co-operative Societies, Trades' Unions, and Arbitration Courts.—Notwithstanding the efforts made by the mining authorities, with the support of all the owners, to induce the miners to form voluntary associations for the purchase of cheap provisions, co-operative stores can hardly be said to exist except in those cases where they have been established in connection with compulsory organizations, and by those who have most personal experience of the mining population of this country, the

Austrian miner is thought to be as yet unable to appreciate spontaneously the benefits of union.

Disputes between masters and men have hitherto been settled by the administrative mining authorities or the ordinary civil Tribunals. A single case of strike for higher wages occurred last year (1867), but was speedily settled by a compromise effected by the authorities between men and masters.

On the whole, the mining population appears to be well contented, and the average rate of wages to be in fair proportion to the amount of work performed.

The reforms contemplated by Government, however, with regard to the legal position of the working classes in general, which were indicated in the preceding section of this Report, and which may be anticipated in the course of next year, will give to miners, in common with all other operatives—1, the right of strikes and union for such like purposes; 2, arbitration courts composed of men and masters; 3, the compulsory, in lieu of voluntary, subscription on the part of the owners to the miners' fund; 4, increased participation by the workmen in the management of the club funds, &c.

The movement now taking place amongst the working classes generally, will probably lead to legislation upon other important questions, such as the fixing of working hours by law, the reduction of holidays, by way of compensation to employers for reduction in the length of the ordinary working day; increased educational facilities both for children and adults; and, perhaps, the abolition of the system of certificates of discharge.

III.—*Factory Hands and Trade Workmen.*

Under this head there is a great deficiency of trustworthy official statistics. The following statements are based upon information collected from the Chambers of Commerce and Industry; and as they only refer to the larger establishments, they must not be regarded as a complete record of the condition of the working classes employed, even in the various trades to which reference will be made in succeeding sections of the present Report.

If the scanty statistics which are, as yet, the only ones accessible even to official inquiry* may be trusted, there are in Austria about 6,510,000 workmen. Of this number, 17·2 per cent. (or 59,343), are provided with lodging by 493 employers. The mode of the provision made for their lodging is various: 1,348 workmen are lodged with their employers; 245 establishments provide free lodging for 24,800 workmen; 4 establishments provide free lodging only for married men; 37 establishments furnish comfortable lodgings for married men at a low rent; 15 establishments, employing 2,290, provide beds at a small weekly charge, for 1,053 workmen, and beds free of all charge for unmarried workmen; 87 factories, employing 8,512 hands, provide lodging and beds, rent-free, for unmarried men, partly in workmen's barracks, partly in separate cottages; 18 establishments give lodging to 60,000 workmen. Lodging, rent free, for superintendents, are provided by 28 factories, employing 2,607 hands. Allowance for rent is given by two establishments, employing 60 workmen.

Some few establishments undertake the construction of houses, of which, by the annual payment of a small rent, the workman can gradually purchase the ownership. Most of the Austrian railway companies, it may here be mentioned, allow a discount on the price of railway tickets for workmen. The Sudbahn, for instance, is very liberal in this respect.

379 establishments provide board, in one way or other, wholly or partially, for 46,739 workmen, that is to say, for about 13·7 per cent. of the whole working class as above estimated. A great number of workmen are boarded entirely by their employers; others receive, for the cultivation of garden produce, &c., pieces of land rent free, or at a very trifling rent. In some factories food is distributed at wholesale prices to the hands; and in others, co-operative stores have been established by the workmen themselves. The capital for starting these stores is in many cases raised from loans advanced by the employers, or by the sick-relief fund; and they are generally supplied with store-room, and office buildings, but free, on the premises of the factory. In some

† A new census of the whole population is to be taken in the year 1870.

factories married men are supplied with food, and single men receive an allowance for board. In others, eating-houses are established, where a good dinner of soup, meat, and vegetables can be got at a very moderate price. For the kitchens of these eating-houses, the factories with which they are connected, generally furnish the fuel, and sometimes the cooks. Many factories have their own baking-ovens; and some of them supply free rations of rice and potatoes to their hands. The subject of co-operative stores will be more fully treated in another part of this Report.

Sick Relief, and Compensations, &c.—723 establishments, employing altogether 141,764 hands (about 40 per cent. of the whole working class), afford support, of one sort or other, to their hands, in case of sickness, and compensation in case of accident or death.

By 185 establishments (30,498 hands), the hospital fees for sick workmen are paid entirely. In 5 factories 211 workmen, the expenses for the care and cure of the sick are defrayed by the joint contribution of masters and men. In 496 factories (109,990 hands), relief societies and pension funds are established, to which the employers contribute a fixed sum, varying in amount from 12 florins (about 1*l.*), to 420 florins (about 40*l.*) per annum, in addition to a contribution of from 20 to 30 per cent. on the contributions of the workmen. The contributions of the workmen are graduated in proportion to their age and health (on the life insurance principle), and vary from 1 to 7 per cent. of their wages. The majority of workmen pay only 1 or 2 per cent. Out of 64,000 hands, for instance, 16,000 are returned as paying 1 per cent., and 31,000 as paying 2 per cent. Those who pay only 1 per cent. receive, in case of sickness, medicine and medical attendance free; a small contribution to the burial expenses is also received by their families in case of death.

Those who pay 2 per cent. receive in addition to the above, support to the amount of half their wages, when they are on the sick list. The average length of time for which this support is continued is eight weeks. More extended relief and other advantages can only be secured by contributions at the rate of 3 or 4 per cent. to the relief fund. Those factories in which the workman's contribution to this fund is fixed at 5 or 6 per

cent., afford pensions and small annuities to widows, orphans, and permanent invalids. The relief fund itself, however, is rarely if ever able to bear these expensive claims upon it; and the system is only maintained by extensive assistance on the part of the employers.

In the Government factory at Zeltweg, for instance, this annual assistance amounts to the thousandth part of the gross profits. And by the Sudbahn engine factory 1·60 per cent. of the annual wages is paid to the same account. In the chemical factories, where labour is especially exposed to accident and loss of health the rate is generally 7 per cent.

In the trades the care and cure of the sick is provided for by their respective "Genossenschaften" as already described.

Educational establishments for the working classes have hitherto been insufficient in number and defective in quality. Seven factories support drawing schools; fifteen support music schools; thirty-nine afford gratuitous instruction in their own schools; thirty-one pay for schooling at the communal schools; three factories pay only a certain annual sum to the communal schools towards the education of the children connected with them. Sewing schools for girls and nurseries for workmen's infants ("Kinderbenahnanstalden") are numerous. The latter are excellent institutions, which might be introduced with great advantage into England. They enable, wherever they are established, every respectable working woman to place her infant where the greatest care is taken of it, without charge, during the time she is at work. Such an institution would be a godsend to many honest and hard-working English mothers.

As regards the education of the working classes in Austria there can be no reasonable doubt that an immense and beneficent stimulus will have been given to it by the recent school bill already described.

Working Hours.—The statistics on this head are very incomplete. The average working day would seem to be about twelve hours. This subject will be more particularly referred to in the following section.

It must be remembered, in connection therewith that the working classes in Austria at present enjoy no less than seventy-six whole holidays in the course of the

year; and in some of the provinces the number of holidays is greater.

IV.—*Survey of the Principal Trades from a Working Class Point of View.*

The great deficiency of official statistics on the subject here specially considered, has obliged me to confine the following short survey of the principal trades established in Austria to the representation of those trades at Vienna.

For the same reason, whatever information may be found in this part of my report has been entirely collected from the working men themselves.

What follows must be taken in connection with these two preliminary statements.

There are about 100,000 trades' workmen in Vienna.

One of the most important trades here represented is that of the turners. Its principal articles of manufacture are pipes and walking-sticks, &c. The chief foreign markets for these articles are Turkey, the Principalities, and Russia. The export to America has lately fallen off in consequence of the high import duty in the United States. In this trade may be included the horn-cutters or mouthpiece makers ("Hornspitzen Drechstin.") The lowest wages earned in this trade are from 4 to 5 florins (somewhat under from 8*s*. to 10*s*. at the present exchange) per week without board and lodging. The co-operation ("Genossenschaft") of the turners is amalgamated with those of the button makers and meerschaum carvers. The latter earn from 8 to 18 florins (16*s*. to 36*s*.) a week.

The Shoemakers number about 10,000 at Vienna. This trade, a very flourishing one, not only supplies all the Austrian and Hungarian markets, but also exports annually to the value of from 5,000,000 to 6,000,000 florins. One Vienna house alone exported in the course of last year the value of 400,000 francs.

In the official Export Returns, boots and shoes are not discriminated from other leather wares. The export of this trade, therefore, cannot be accurately estimated from the official commercial statistics. A good journey

man shoemaker earns as much as 2 florins (4*s.*) a-day. Piece-work is general in this trade.

Joiners.—There are about 8,000 of them in Vienna; and the supply of labour in this trade is considerably under the present demand; which within the last two or three years has been rapidly rising in consequence of the numerous number of houses now building and being furnished at Vienna, and the large export of furniture to the principalities.

The average rate of wages in this trade is from 2 florins 60 kreuzers to 3 florins about (5*s.* to 10*s.*) a-day, for good workmen.

Tailors.—This trade is, perhaps, the most prosperous of all. During the civil war in the United States a great part of the Union army was supplied with clothing from Prague and Vienna. A little later a single Vienna firm provided clothing for the whole of the Egyptian army. Yet in spite or these facts, the complaint is general that the Austrian army in 1866 was very insufficiently clothed, although, at the same time, the Saxon army was provided with good and sufficient clothing by the Austrian tailors. The circumstance complained of must be entirely attributed to the jobbing of contractors. In this trade also the supply of labour is below the demand. Several master tailors of Perth and other towns recently endeavoured to engage at Vienna 2,000 journeymen workmen; but in despite of high offers they were unable to obtain half that number. The rate of wages in this trade is from 2 to 3 florins (4*s.* to 6*s.*) a-day. A system of piece-work carried on in this trade is very generally complained of by all the most respectable workmen in it.

A great number of small bankrupt tailors (known in the trade by the name of piece-masters) being no longer able to work on their own account, contract to work for large houses at greatly reduced prices. These prices are so low that the piece-masters themselves are unable to live by them in independence. But as most of them are in debt to the large houses which have advanced them money, it is not easy for them to relieve themselves of their contracts. I understand, however, that the practice is abating, and that the class of piece-masters is gradually being absorbed into that of journeymen workmen.

There are about 2,000 master tailors at Vienna, em-

ploying about 6,000 workmen and apprentices. They have good markets in the principalities and along the Lower Danube. The capital of the Vienna tailors' "Genossenschaft" is about 400,000 florins (about 40,000*l.*)

Weavers.—There are about 10,000 silk, wool, cotton, shawl, ribbon, and lace weavers in the capital, residing chiefly in its western suburbs. Their average wages are low; and rarely exceed 5 florins (10*s*) a-week.*

Lately, however, the trade has improved, and the present wages of the Vienna ribbon weavers average at about 8 florins (16*s.*) per week.

Plumbers and Lamp Makers.—With a considerable export market; average rate of wages 20 florins (16*s.*) per week.

Smiths and Ironworkers.—Supply of labour below demand. Wages from 2 to 3 florins (4*s.* to 6*s.* a-day. The engine factories of Messrs. Seigel, at Vienna and Wiever Neustadt (which last year exported fifty locomotives to Russia), employ upwards of 2,000 hands.

Carriage builders.—Business brisk, good home markets in Austria and Hungary. Considerable export to the principalities and Russia. Wages high.

Tanners.—Work heavy, and wages low. A strike of the tanners for higher wages in 1866, was summarily settled by wholesale imprisonment (under the Belcredi Ministry) and many of the men emigrated. But within the last year the rate of wages has been somewhat pushed up by the determined resistance of all the men to the old rates.

Saw Grinders.—Men and masters together, this trade numbers about 1,200 representatives at Vienna. This year the men struck for higher wages. Two firms demanded the intervention of the authorities on their behalf. The Bill already in preparation about Trades Unions, however, so far influenced the conduct of the authorities, that the applicants for official intervention were referred to the ordinary tribunals, before which the case was brought.

The masters charged the men with conspiracy to raise the rate of wages contrary to the existing law, and deposed that the defendants had received money and

* I have assumed the florin to be equal to 2*s.*; but its actual value is always under that amount.

instructions from Berlin. They were also charged with intimidation to those of their fellow-workmen who stood by the masters.

After full examination of the evidence on both sides the case was dismissed by the Court and the men carried their point. This strike has had the effect of raising the rate of wages in the trade from 4 and 5 florins (8*s.* and 10*s.*) to 7 and 8 florins (14*s.* and 16*s.*) a week.

Builders.—The rapidity with which houses are now being constructed at Vienna to meet the wants of an enormously increased population has given an immense impetus to this trade. Although one establishment alone produces a million of bricks per diem the supply of material is very inadequate to meet the demand, and the price of bricks is 23 florins (2*l.* 6*s.*) per thousand. The average rate of wages in this trade is, for a head workman, 1 florin 30 kreutzers (2*s.* 8*d.*) a day (the day's work being from 6 A.M. to 7 P.M.); for an assistant workman 1 florin (2*s.*), and for a woman 80 kreutzers (1*s.* 8*d.*).

Brass, Bronze, and German Silversmiths.—There are at Vienna about 900 workers in bronze; 380 of them are married men. About 30 women are also employed in this trade. Of these 900, from 6 to 7 florins (12*s.* to 14*s.*) a week is earned by 200; from 7 to 9 florins (14*s.* to 18*s.*) a week by 500, and from 9 to 11 florins (18*s.* to 1*l.* 2*s.*) a week by 100. About 100 others earn by piecework from 7 to 10 florins (14*s.* to 1*l.*) a week.

The German silversmiths number 300 at Vienna. About 200 of them earn from 6 to 7 florins (12*s.* to 14*s.*) a week, and the rest from 7 to 10 florins (14*s.* to 1*l.*) a week. The working hours in this trade are from 6 A.M. to 6 P.M., with only one hour's rest for the day's meal. Many of the men work extra hours, at the rate of from 12 to 20 kreutzers (3*d.* to 5*d.*) per hour.

During the months from January to August, however, this trade is slack, and the masters then discharge the majority of their workmen. Consequently, eight months on the annual average must be subtracted from what these workmen can gain per annum at the rate of 1*l.* per week (or strictly speaking from 15*s.* to 18*s.*) at the highest wages. An unmarried workman cannot support himself at Vienna under 80 kreutzers (1*s.* 8*d.*) a day for board at the rate of 150 florins (15*l.*) a year for lodging and clothing. It is obvious, therefore, that even a single

man cannot support himself on these wages all the year round under the above-mentioned conditions; and of course of the case of a married man is harder still, unless his wife can earn enough to cover the annual deficit in the domestic exchequer. Yet the working men of this trade have recently formed a voluntary association for their mutual support and education also. Their contribution to the "Genossenschaft" of the trade is the same as that of the tailors.

Printers, Setters, and Type-founders number at Vienna about 2,000 workmen, and from 700 to 800 apprentices. The apprentices, after two years' apprenticeship, earn from 2 to 4 florins (4*s.* to 8*s.*) a week; but cannot become workmen until after four years' apprenticeship.

The workmen and apprentices have their own sick relief fund, to which the monthly subscription is 50 kreutzers (1*s.*).

In the year 1853 a number of printers in this city founded for their amusement and instruction a union, called the "Buchdrucker, Shriftvetzer, und Shuftgeiser Fortbildungs Verein."

This institution was founded on the model of the general German "Buchdruckers Fortbildungs Verein" (now numbering 7,000 members). The Vienna Institute is very flourishing. At present the number of its members is 1,500. Every evening there are at this Institute either lectures on scientific subjects or debates on commercial and political questions. The establishment is also furnished with a very fair library. This "Fortbildungs Verein" is now about to start a weekly journal, to be entirely written by working men, and called "Vorwärts" (Forward!), the celebrated word of command of General Blücher—the "Up guards and at 'em" of German patriotism.

The majority of working men in the printers' trade are, theoretically, ardent disciples of the Lassalle theory,* but in practice they have adopted the principles of Shultze-Delitsch.

They have stocked, with the capital realized from their savings, a Co-operative Printing Press, which is now succeeding very well; besides a co-operative store which at

* The two systems will be more fully referred to in the next section of this Report.

present has ninety subscribers. 1,500 printers are at this moment in negotiation for the purchase of another large printing-office, which they propose to conduct on the co-operative system.

The working hours at the Vienna printing-offices, are ten hours per diem, with extra wages for extra work. The workmen are now agitating for a reduction of the working day to nine hours. The average wages of a setter are from 3 florins (6*s.*) upwards per diem. The number of setters now employed at Vienna is 1,400.

Bakers.—Inferior workmen only earn about 1 florin 50 kreutzers (3*s.*) a week, and head workmen about 7*s.* a week in this trade. The men complain of bad lodging, bad food, and over work. At a meeting, attended on the 24th of last June by above 1,000 working bakers, the facts stated appeared to me so grievous, that being unable, in the absence of all official information, to judge how far they are exceptional in the trade, I refrain from recording them.

I am aware that the foregoing sketch is miserably imperfect, but so is the only information which it has been possible to obtain in reference to the subject of it.

I subjoin the answers returned by the Select Committee of turners, pipe-cutters, mouthpiece makers, basket makers, and button (horn and pearl) makers, to the queries submitted to them about eight months ago by the Chambers of Commerce and Industry :—

Q. 1. What is the number of working-men employed in your trade ?—*A.* About 3,500 men, and between 900 and 1,000 women.

Q. 2. How many of them are married ?—*A.* Between 900 and 1,000.

Q. 3. How many journeymen ?—*A.* About 120 men, and 250 women.

Q. 4. What are the weekly wages ?—*A.* For 800 workmen, 4 to 7 florins (8*s.* to 14*s.*) ; for 300 workmen, 7 to 10 florins (14*s.* to 1*l.*) ; for 150 workmen, 12 florins (1*l.* 4*s.*) Women's wages 2 to 5 florins the week.

Q. 5. What are the working hours ?—*A.* Not fixed. In some workshops from 4 or 5 A.M. to 8 P.M. But in most workshops the average is from 6 A.M. to 7 P.M., with half an hour's rest at 8 A.M. for breakfast, one hour's rest at noon for dinner, and half an hour's rest at 6 P.M. for supper.

Q. 6. Is extra work allowed, and what prices are paid for it?—*A.* Yes; it is frequent. The prices are in proportion to the weekly wages: at lowest 5 kreutzers per hour (about 1*d.*); the highest rarely over 12 kreutzers (about 2½*d.*) per hour.

Q. 7. Any piece work?—*A.* Yes; about 2,300 earn between 2 and 3 per cent. higher than the rest by piece work.

Q. 8. What becomes of the children of working men and women while their parents are at work?—*A.* There are public nurseries ("Kinderbenahnanstalten") which take care of them without charge. But the number of these institutions is very insufficient.

Q. 9. Is there any provision for the sick, or for workmen permantly invalided?—*A.* The "Gesellenlade" (sick relief fund) of the "Genossenschaft" provides for the sick. Each workman subscribes to it 25 kreutzers a month (6*d*). In return for his subscription the "Genossenschaft" pays for his reception at the hospital during sickness; or, if he prefers it, gives him an allowance of 2 florins (4*s.*) a week for his treatment at home. We consider the allowance inadequate, the lowest hospital charge being 3 florins 29 kreutzers (6*s.* 6½*d.*) a week. If the "Genossenschaft" were (as we demand) abolished, its members could obtain as efficient relief during sickness from the "Allgemeinen Arbeiter Krauken und Invaliden Rossa" ("the General Workman's Sick and Invalid Relief Club"), a voluntary society, by a weekly subscription of only 14 kreutzers. The "Genossenschaft" makes no provision for permanently invalided workmen.

Q. 10. What annual income is sufficient for an unmarried working man to live upon?—*A.*

	Florins.		£	*s.*
Board (1 fl. per diem).	.. 365	about	36	10
Lodging	.. 100	„	10	0
Clothing and sundries.	.. 67	„	6	14
Annual Total	.. 532		53	4

Q. 11. What for a married working man?—*A.* The foregoing estimate of the minimum annual expenditure of an unmarried working-man will enable any member of the Honourable Board to answer this question for himself.

Q. 12. Does the trade provide any houses specially for the use of working-men, or any such houses accessible to its members?—*A.* No. And throughout Vienna house rent is at present exorbitant. It is very difficult to obtain one small room, with the use of the kitchen, at a rent of 100 florins (10*l.*) per annum.

Q. 13. Are cheap provisions provided by the trade for the working-men employed in it?—*A.* No.

Q. 14. What provision is made, or what means exist, for their education?—*A.* There are special schools for apprentices, but none for workmen.

Q. 15. Do any of the workmen lodge and board with their masters?—*A.* About 600 workmen lodge and board (badly) with their masters.

Q. 16. Is the trade slack during any season of the year?—*A.* Yes; during the three midsummer months. Discharges are frequent at that season.

The tailors' "Genossenschaft" answered the foregoing questions as follows:—

A. 1. Above 14 years of age—

Men,	from	.. ..	3,000 to 3,500
Women,	,,	.. ..	400 to 500
Apprentices,	,,	.. ..	800 to 1,000
Girls,	,,	.. ..	200 to 300
	Approximate Total	.. ..	5,300

A. 2. About the sixth part are married.

A. 3. There are about 1,000 journeymen and piece workers.

A. 4. According to the ability of the workman from 5 to 9 florins (10*s.* to 18*s.*) a week, without board and lodging.

A. 5. From 12 to 15 hours a day. In summer from 5, 6, or 7 A.M. till 8 P.M. In winter from 6 or 7 A.M. till 8, 9, or 10 P.M., with an hour's rest for dinner.

A. 6. Extra work is common in the busy season, but without adequate remuneration.

A. 7. Yes.

A. 8.

A. 9. Yes. The tailor's "Gesellenlade" has been established since 1848. The subscription is (by the Law of 1864) 70 kreutzers quarterly (1*s.* 5*d.*), and is

collected by four paid rate-gatherers. The working men are represented in the administration of the fund by eighteen deputies. Since 1864 a surgeon is attached to the "Genossenschaft" at an annual salary of 600 florins (60*l.*), who may be consulted gratis at the hall of the guild daily from 12 to 1 o'clock. The claims on the tailors' "Gesellenlade" are the same as those described above in the case of the turners, &c.; from 3,000 to 4,000 working tailors at Vienna subscribe to this fund. But it is unpopular, and there is a general disposition to shirk the subscription.

A. 10. From 470 to 500 florins (50*l.*) a-year.

A. 11. If with a family of two children, 600 florins a-year (60*l.*) is the minimum required for the bare necessities of life.

A. 12. No. But the greater part of the workmen lodge and board with their masters.

A. 13. No. Ditto.

A. 14. The tailor's Trade School was established at Vienna with the assistance of the Common Council, which provided the school-rooms rent free in the month of April 1867. This school teaches reading, writing, arithmatic, book-keeping, German composition, geography, history, and drawing; chemistry, physics, and a general knowledge of the arts and manufactures, also for part of the general instruction given at this school. In regard to the technical instruction, Herr Otto Hokenholy, of the tailor's Academy at Dresden, is retained for lessons in cutting out, and the use of sewing machines; Herr Franz Babor, for ladies' dressmaking. M. Hohenholz's services are paid by the "Genossenschaft," those of M. Babor are, I believe, voluntary and gratuitous. The "Genossenschaft" also pays for the heating and lighting of the school-rooms, and provides books for poor scholars, The school hours are from 3 to 6 P.M. every Sunday. There are annual public examinations, at which prizes are distributed. This school obtained a prize medal at the Working Men's Exhibition of 1868. It has about 130 scholars. It has been presented with a library by the Dresden Taylor's Academy.

A. 15. Answered above. Here, however, it may be mentioned that from 1,500 to 1,700 workmen who lodge

and board with their masters, receive weekly wages of from 1 to 4 florins (2*s.* to 8*s.*) About 1,000 journeymen workmen earn from 1 florin to 1 florin 50 kreutzers a-day at ladies' dressmaking. Cutters-out (about 200 of them at Vienna), are generally paid by the month. Their wages vary from 40 to 100 florins (4*l.* to 10*l.*) a month, with board, lodging, and sometimes clothing provided free of charge by their masters. From 600 to 800 piece workers earn from 5 to 15 florins (10*s.* to 30*s.*) a week by piece-work.

Journey-women, above the age of 14, earn from 50 to 80 kreutzers (1*s.* to 1*s.* 7½*d.*) a day. About 500 of them are employed in ladies' tailoring. About 100 work-women are lodged and boarded by the establishments which employ them, at from 6 to 12 florins wages per month.

A. 16. Yes. The brisk season is from the beginning of March to the middle of July; and again, from September to the end of the year. During the intervening months wages fall, piecework is more generally accepted, and many men leave Vienna in search of work elsewhere.

Voluntary Associations.

It will have been seen by the preceding portions of this Report that Trades Unions in the English sense of the term do not yet exist in Austria.

The progress of voluntary co-operative and other similar associations, however, has been very considerable amongst the Austrian operatives within the last few years.

The total number of such associations in the year 1866 was only 123. In 1867 it had increased to 256, and in 1868 it was 671. It had therefore quadrupled in the course of two years.

Of these 671 Associations—

(*a.*) 418 were loan and discount banks.

(*b.*) 237 co-operative store societies.

(*c.*) 16 wholesale produce associations.

Of the Lombard and Discount Bank Unions (*a.*) there are—

In Bohemia	288
Moravia	69
Lower Austria	32
Upper Austria	6
Carinthia	6
Silesia	6
Styria	5
Salyburgh (Upper and Lower)	3
Tyrol	2
The Litoral	1
	418

Of the Co-operative Store Unions (*b.*) there are—

In Bohemia	159
Moravia	35
Lower Austria	19
Upper Austria	6
Tyrol	6
Styria	6
Carinthia	2
Silesia	2
Salyburgh	1
Litoral	1
	237

Of the other 16 Unions (*c.*) 14 are in Bohemia; 1 in Lower Austria and 1 in Styria. Six of them are tailors' unions, 5 are shoemakers' unions, and 2 are cabinet-makers' unions. The remaining 3 are formed by other trades. As regards the constitution and circumstances of these unions statistics are absolutely wanting.

In estimating the political character and importance of those other working mens' unions which unite political with economical objects, it will be necessary to bear in mind the extent to which all political and social forces in this empire are traversed and counterpoised by the conflicting tendencies of the various nationalities associated under Austrian rule. I propose in the following section to consider, first the German, then the Slav, and then the Italian Unions.

1. *German, Sclavonic, and Italian Unions.*—The allegiance of the working men of Austria is still divided between two great rival theories, each of which has been put forward with great ability by the author of it, for the systematic organization of the working classes throughout Germany.

One is the system of M. Shulze-Delitsch, and the other that of the late M. Ferdinand Lassalle.

The examination of these two entirely antagonistic systems would be exceedingly interesting; but it cannot, I think, be properly undertaken here: in the first place, because neither of the two systems are of Austrian origin, and both of them will doubtless be fully explained in the Report of Her Majesty's Secretary of Embassy at Berlin. In the second place, because any but the most superficial analyses of them would enormously exceed the limits of this already long Report.

The two systems are, however, so generally well known and understood, that for all present purposes it will suffice to recall to mind the special character of each; for which purpose I shall refer to the Lassalle system, as the system of State Help, and the Schulze-Delitsch system as the system of Self Help.

There can be no doubt that, in Austria as (I believe) in most other parts of Germany, it is the former which is the most popular amongst the working classes.

The German unions in Austria may be divided into three classes: those which are formed to support and propagate the State-help theory, those which are formed on the self-help system, and those which do not systematically follow any particular theory.

(*a.*) The disciples of Lassalle are most numerously and most favourably represented by the Vienna "Arbeiterbildungs Verein" or "Working-man's Educational Union." Similar associations on the model of this institution are already established at Penzing, Baden, Tumau, Neustadt, Neukerchen, Glaggnitz, Linz, Wels, Steyer, Gratz, Leoben, Zeltweg, Brüun, and Reichenberg. Others are in course of formation elsewhere. All these branch lodges are in connection with the Central Union at Vienna.

Its organization consists of a Central Committee—a sort of Convention—by whose members every trade and every description of workmanship are represented. This Committee transmits its orders to Special Committees (Fachverein), formed in connection with each separate trade, for the purpose of receiving and acting upon those orders. The objects agitated for by the Committee are various; the abolition of the "Genossenschaften," or compulsory unions, the extension of the suffrage to the working classes, &c. In short, it acts as the elected guardian of the working classes' interests in general, and

their representative on every occasion which admits of political agitation. The organization of the Union enables the Committee to act with great celerity over an extended surface, and bring to bear, at a moment's notice, on any given question the simultaneous pressure of a certain amount of agitation or organized opinion in every trade, and every considerable group of industrial interests. The Union is also in alliance and correspondence with various foreign unions, and especially with the International Working Men's Association. This Union has also the virtual control and administration of the funds of the General Working Man's Relief Society "(Allgemeine Arbeite Krauken, Unterstutzung, und Invalidenkassa"), an association which is fast absorbing into itself all other voluntary associations of a similar kind. The Bill likely to pass the Reichsrath next session will enable the Committee to divert (without illegality) the increasing subscriptions to this fund (the subscribers being mostly members of the Union represented on the Committee) from the purposes for which they were originally destined, whenever it may appear advisable to employ them in promoting or sustaining strikes. Another object of the Union, and one in the prosecution of which it is very active, is the organization of general meetings for the discussion and explanation of the Lassalle, (or, as it is here called) social-democratic programme. This subject indeed appears to be the one to which the instruction given by the so-called Working Man's Educational Union is chiefly devoted.

This Union has about 8,000 members in Vienna. It is the active opponent of all associations formed on the self-help principle. Its influence is daily increasing; and as its programme cannot be realized without the co-operation of the State, and the co-operation demanded of the State cannot be obtained without the comprehensive democratization of Government, it is obvious that this Union constitutes a permanent focus of political agitation which would probably become formidable, within a very short time, if society were more homogeneous than it is throughout the Austrian Empire. Purely social questions, however, must always remain of subordinate importance in this Empire, so long as the apparently insoluble question of nationalities remains unsettled.

There formerly existed at Gratz (Styria) a working-

man's educational union, founded and formed on the Schultze-Delitsch system. But it has recently been dissolved by the determined opposition and rapid popularity of a rival education union called the "Vorwärts" (Forwards), established in the same town on the Lassalle principle.

A similar union established by the social democrat, Edmond Mühlwasser, has recently replaced at Brünn, a union formed on a somewhat less radical basis, by the young Czech Pasky; and the Nordbahn Working-men's Union at Florisdorf also adopts the social-democratic programme.

(B.) The Schultze-Delitsch system has been tried with success by the unions of the tailors, setters, weavers, and ribbon-makers, as well as by most of the Government factories, and a great number of co-operative store, and other similar societies. The most important of these is the Silesian Workman's Association at Troppau; which actively opposes the Lassalle theories, and has started a newspaper (the "United Force") in which war is openly declared against the "Social-Democratic Programme."

(C.) In the third and last of the abovementioned classes must be counted the Vienna Printers' Educational Union, already described elsewhere. This union is now working with great success a co-operative printing-press, which does business on a large scale. It is also in treaty for the purchase of another. Similar institutions on the same model exist at Prague, Brünn, Graz, Laibach, and Lenz. All these institutions and unions, whilst adopting a very liberal programme, are opposed, in the main, to the Lasalle theories. Many of them have established technical and general schools, which bear a high reputation. They have also founded large lending libraries, banks of deposit, and loan and relief societies.

Sclavonic Unions. — The character of these unions differ essentially from that of the German unions. Most of them are founded by the so-called young Czech Pasky amongst the working men in Bohemia, and wherever else the purely Sclavonic nationality prevails. The objects of their political agitation are national or provincial rather than social. They stand altogether aloof from the German "Social-Democratic Programme." They are in no connection with the International Working men's

League. Their activity is chiefly confined to the promotion of material or local interests. These unions represent the largest proportion of co-operative stores and discount banks. I believe about 4·50.

Italian Unions.—Of these, the most important is the "Società Operosa" at Trieste. This Society, and the Working Men's Relief Societies throughout the Southern Tyrol, are all in direct connection with the Democratic Union of Brescia. Their political pregramme is separatist. In point of fact these Italian Unions, though nominally economical, are virtually altogether political associations. Their economical activity, if not entirely fictitious, is in any case so slight that they cannot claim further notice in a report of this kind.

Short as it is, the foregoing sketch will, I trust, have justified the shortness of it, by sufficiently illustrating the one great fact which invariably circumscribes and reduces the special importance of every particular question connected with the international condition of the Austrian Empire, viz., that in this Empire there are always at least half a dozen questions of equal importance to be simultaneously considered.

Thus, if it be asked what is the political force represented by the collective opinion and action of the working classes in this country, the answer must be that there is no such thing as a collective opinion or a collective action on the part of the Austrian working classes.

The Italianissimi agitate to be united to Italy.

The Czech demands either provincial autonomy or imperial supremacy.

The philosophic German, whose ideas are less restricted, and whose conception of human happiness is almost boundless, proclaims on behalf of mankind in general, the abolition of all inconvenient distinctions of race, religion, and language; the suppression of standing armies; the reign of perpetual peace; the establishment of a universal commonwealth, in which there shall be a perennial supply of artificial and well-paid work; the taxation, only of wages; and repressive laws only for the limitation of the number of apprentices.

Personal Character and Future Prospects of the Austrian Working Man.

The following remarks with which I shall ask permission to close the present report must be taken solely as the result of personal impressions derived from intercourse with Austrian working men, which, however, frequently sought, and freely afforded, has been necessarily incomplete. The basis of all judgment must be comparison; and, in endeavouring to form a fair judgment of the degree of moral and intellectual development attained by the majority of working men in Austria, I have had constant occasion to regret my unwilling, but unavoidable, ignorance of the personal characteristics of working men in England.

By the general public opinion here, and by the more experienced opinion of those Government authorities who are most frequently brought into contact with the Austrian working man, his intellectual and educational attainments appear to be rated somewhat low. I am bound to say, however, that in my own intercourse with working men here, I have been surprised by the appearance of a much higher degree of culture and intellectual refinement than I expected to find amongst them.

I may have been exceptionally fortunate in the chances which have fallen to my experience, but I have never yet met with any of the better class of Vienna working men who were unable to read and write correctly, or ignorant of, at least, the masterpieces of the literary genius of Germany. I have conversed with many Vienna working men who appeared to be thoroughly acquainted with all the classics of German literature, and to have formed independent and highly intelligent judgments of their relative merits. Generally speaking (from my own experience, at least) I should say that in conversation with the better class of Austrian working men (and by the better class I mean full grown workmen in all the more important trades) the average number of literary or historical allusions which would occur in ordinary conversations with any other class of persons (not professional students or men of letters) are quite as readily seized and as intelligently followed up, as they would be by the average number of persons in any other class of society.

Whether the average English artizan has attained a higher degree of general culture I know not; but certainly the working class in this country has not yet produced any men equal in proved ability and eminent public activity to a great number of distinguished representatives of the working classes in England; and I fancy that on subjects of political and economical science the Austrian working-man is probably worse informed than the English. I must, however, bear witness to the fact that at working men's meeting in this city I have frequently listened to speeches delivered by working men with an eloquence of utterance, a correctness of expression, and a dignity of gesture, which would probably be effective in any public assembly. As the German race is not remarkable either for natural eloquence, or natural grace of manner, I cannot but attribute this fact, in connection with the others above mentioned, to a certain degree of culture. But to what must the culture be attributed? Where and how has it been acquired? The effects of the new School Bill, so often referred to in these pages, cannot here be taken into account; and the educational establishments, hitherto existing for the instruction of the working classes, are neither numerous nor efficient. Whence then this appearance of mental refinement? I take it that the true answer to this question must be sought in the social life of the Austrian working man. Here, perhaps, certain phenomena are to be observed which find their counterpart in the social life of the upper classes in England. The instruction given by our great public schools and colleges is not much to boast of; but the whole life of an Englishman born in the upper ranks of society is a self-educating one. From Parliament, and public business, from the great offices of State, from the responsible management of vast public and private interests, from frequent foreign travel, from a rich store of inherited refinement, and habitual intercourse with the most cultivated society of all countries, as well as the often-repeated necessity of mastering new subjects of study, in which society is generally interested: he is constantly, and almost without conscious effort, developing his intelligence and augmenting his store of information.

So, as regards the Austrian workman, his immediately ostensible sources of education are not great.

But his daily life is more or less subject to the incalculable influence of two great agents of refinement: the theatre and the concert room, music and the drama. The stage is still an active educational agent throughout Germany. The drama is still regarded by German critics as the noblest province of poetry, and dramatic success is still valued by men of literary genius as the worthiest and widest on which they can rest their reputation. It consequently happens that the intellectual pabulum provided for the Austrian working man by the theatre, which he so passionately loves and so faithfully frequents, is the masterwork of all the greatest poets, thinkers, and men of letters from Goethe to the present day. Of course, this would not be the case if the theatre were unfrequented by the upper and middle classes, or if the interest taken in it did not enter deeply into the daily life of the whole population. But the Austrians, in common with all other Germans, are a theatre-going people, and it is from stage representations that all classes of society, from the highest to the lowest, derive nightly instruction as well as amusement. The merits or demerits, both of the actors and the pieces in which they perform, are habitual subjects of general conversation, intelligent interest, and thoughtful criticism. The German stage is under no religious ban. And owing to the same causes which enlist on its behalf the highest literary genius, histrionic art is more respected here than in England, and the actors and actresses themselves are a class of persons very superior in all respects to those whose vulgarity and coarseness are tolerated and even admired by London audiences. Curious illustrations of the love of the lower orders in this country for dramatic representation is afforded by the crowds, composed entirely of the poorer classes (the greater part being probably artizans and their families), which may daily be seen waiting with great patience and good behaviour about the doors of the best theatres in Vienna hours before those doors are opened, in order to obtain good places. The same as regards the opera houses. Good performances of the works of the best musical composers are abundant and accessible to all classes of the population at a comparatively trifling expense. At the numerous places of resort and recreation frequented by the Austrian working man, the chief and most general

source of recreation is music. The music at these places is never very bad, and often very good. There are very few Austrian working men who cannot either sing or play some instrument, and who do not belong either to some amateur orchestra or singing club. I may mention here that the cotton factory of Truman, in Lower Austria, has established and maintained, amongst its workmen, an excellent theatrical union, the expenses of which are defrayed by the workmen and their employers conjointly.

It is, indeed, impossible, I think, to over-estimate all that is owed by the Austrian working-man in the way of general refinement, to his beneficent capacity for innocent amusement, and the abundance with which the means of it are provided for him by the habits and instincts of the society of which he forms a part.

A certain supply of *bonâ fide* amusement, and relaxation of mind as well as body, is regarded by most Austrian workmen as a legitimate and necessary part of their annual expenditure.

And it is to the humanizing influence of this view and habit of life, rather than to any innate peculiarity of temperament, that I am disposed to attribute the geniality and kindliness of disposition, as well as the refinement of manner which have so greatly struck me in my occasional intercourse with the Viennese working man.

So far as I can ascertain, the practice of rattening is unknown amongst the working classes of this country, and the utmost intimidation of workmen by workmen that has ever been made subject of public complaint, consist only of "sending to Coventry." Intoxication also is rare, and habitual intoxication very rare, amongst the Austrian working men, although the quantity of light Austrian beer which they consume must be considerable.

It remains to consider what is the social and political task reserved for the working class in Austria should it ever attain to political power, and how far it is likely to achieve that task. What, in short, is the probable destiny of the working classes of this Empire? The destiny of everything connected with the Austrian Empire is at present dubious; and certainly I shall not attempt prediction on such a subject. But certain reflections are irresistibly suggested by it. In all countries, the Government of which has already passed

from the hands of the aristocracy into those of the middle class, it is at least probable that it will also pass, in course of time, if the national unity lasts long enough, from the hands of the middle into those of the working class. Austria is one of those countries.

The Government of such an Empire as the Austrian has many problems to solve, but the most important and most difficult of them all is, how to keep together seventeen rival nationalities in such manner as to make the social and political force represented by each of them a co-efficient in the sum of the forces represented by the Empire. So long as the Government of the Empire remained undisputed in the hands of the aristocracy, this problem was more or less worked out by means of three great administrative agencies—the army, the Church, and the personal power of the Sovereign.

The army and the Church constituted, each of them, a great and delicately elaborated organization, animated by a strong *esprit de corps* (which partly supplied the place of the national spirit excluded by the primary conditions of the problem), and in possession of a widely extended traditional prestige. These two bodies in connection with the personal power of the Crown, formed the three great representative unities of the Empire. Unities, by reason of the cohesive force of their animating spirit; and representative, because all portions of the Empire were more or less represented in, and by them. Nor can it be doubted that this triple bond—dynastic, military, and ecclesiastical—sufficed for centuries, if not to consolidate, at least to conserve—if not to unify, at least to unite—the highly composite and artificial dominion round which it was woven.

Whatever the faults and failings of the central Power thus constituted in Austria, it had, at least, the primary requisite of all Government, viz., strength. For all the forces of the Empire, converging at one point, and culminating in the sole representative power of the Imperial Crown, could be wielded by a single will, armed with a two-fold organization of moral and material power.

The Government of the Empire by the middle class of its German population—beneficent in some respects which are not here under consideration—has completely and irremediably dissolved the old bonds of union. The

construction, therefore, of some new cohesive apparatus, equal in strength to the connecting links now shattered, but more in harmony with the established conditions of the present *régime*, and the general tendencies and sentiments of modern society, has become a question of vital and imminent necessity for the maintenance of the Empire. The Government of the middle classes, however, has not only failed to solve that question; it has recently and enthusiastically asserted its resolution not even to attempt the solution of it.

It may safely be assumed, therefore, that the most important task of Government in this country will remain unaccomplished by the middle class power.

Will it ever be accomplished by the working class? The answer to such a question can only follow the answers to be given to a variety of others; and first of all to the question as to what should, or can, be the character of the new bond best fitted to replace the old.

It is clear that it cannot again be either military, ecclesiastical, or personal. Not permanently so, at any rate. What forces then remain in which to seek it? None, perhaps, but the force of an enlightened economical and financial policy capable of promoting a sense of mutual interdependence on the part of all the constituent populations of the Empire, by a clearly recognized solidarity of material interests. Such a policy must not be expected from the present governing Power, which, though it is the vigorous destroyer of all other monopolies, is itself the great commercial and industrial monopolist of the Empire. So long as the whole Empire continues to be governed by the present Parliamentary majority, the Czech, the Ruthenian, the Pole, the Magyar, even the German himself, will continue to pay artificial prices for many of the necessaries of life because a few Austro-Germans happen to be manufacturers.

I am by no means so sanguine as to suppose that the favourable political effects of a more liberal commercial policy coupled with a radical reform of the whole financial system would at once be apparent. Neither do I believe that in the utmost success of such a policy it would be possible to find a cement, sufficiently cohesive, taken by itself, for the unification and sustension of a political edifice which is threatened with disintegration

by moral, rather than material, influences. Doubtless, in the difficult task of governing antagonistic nationalities, questions of sentiment are more to be considered than questions of material interest. For dealing with such questions personal government has, at least, the inestimable qualification of silence. But Parliamentary government must necessarily give full utterance to the passions, the prejudices, the deficient sympathies, of the majority of the hour; and the heedless—nay, perhaps the well-intentioned—language of a single individual, may irretrievably hurt the uncomprehended susceptibilities of a whole population. But I do believe that such a commercial and financial policy as is now required by the material interests of all but a very small minority of the whole population of this Empire, would eventually furnish a powerful security for the gradual and pacific resettlement of its constituent kingdoms on the firm basis of a common advantage. And, assuredly, of all classes of Austrian society, it is the working class which ought chiefly to desire such an experiment. For whatever province or population they may happen to belong to, and however divided they may be from one another by race, religion, language, or political tradition, all working men throughout the Austrian Empire have the strongest possible common interest in the abrogation of those laws which now tax the poor consumer for the benefit of the rich producer, and impose an artificial price upon many of the working man's means of subsistence in order to protect the means of production possessed by some of his employers.

Absit omen! But before the working classes in this Empire attain to any share in the government of it, its present German population, which is also its most industrial population, may, perhaps, have ceased to belong to it.

Such a calamity Europe would probably have cause to regret.

If, however, the working classes of Austria do eventually attain to political power in the Empire, as it is now constituted, they may perhaps employ their power to replace one kind of monopolies favourable to employers, by another kind of monopolies favourable to labourers, and equally at the expense of the whole community.

For such a calamity as this the community would

have to thank the working man's present employers—the German middle class. It is they who will, in that case, have taught the working class to place the advantage of the few above the interests of the many, to prefer favour to freedom, to see in the State only the servant of selfishness, and to look upon legislation as the legitimate mechanism of monopoly.

I have, &c.

(Signed) RT. LYTTON.

INDEX.

Agricultural Labourers, 50, 53, 303.
Apprenticeship, 23, 59, 131, 152, 318, 418, 523.
" Arbeitsbuch," 134.
Arbitration, 537.
Austria—Report, 521; Wages, 523; "Genossenschaften," 526; Trade Combinations, 533; Children, Employment, 534; Education Law, 534, 548; Sick Funds, 536, 552; Arbitration Courts, 537; Political Rights, 538; Miners, 539, 548; Dwellings of Artizans, 551; Co-operative Stores, 551; Crèches, 553; Co-operative Printing, 558; Societies and Unions, 563; Lassalle, 565; Schultze-Delitsch, 565—567; Union at Trieste, 568; Intimidation, 572.

Baden—Report, 260.
Banks, Artizans', 213.
Belgium—Report, 142; Wages, 143; Miners, 146; Holidays, 144; Prud'hommes, 148.
Benefit Clubs, 26, 149, 272, 508.
Brazil—Report, 519.
Building Society, 510.

California, 340.
Children, Employment, 63, 132, 183, 222, 415, 534.
Combinations, 24, 224, 533.
Constantinople, 234.
Co-operation, 376, 512, 551, 558, 563.
Crèches, 467, 553.

Democracy, Swiss, effect of, 271.
Denmark—Report, 503; Wages, 505; Strikes, 507; Savings' Bank, 509; Building Societies, 510; Co-operation, 512.
Disaffection in France, 492.
Dutch, Character of, 17.
Dwellings, Artizans', 20, 22, 74, 161, 163, 214, 244, 252, 287, 303, 312, 356, 462, 510, 551.

Education, 128, 204, 276, 467, 473, 534, 548.
Eight Hours' Movement, United States, 354.
Emigration, 32, 176, 489.
Emperor of French and the Operatives, 435.

France—Report, 383; Employments, 386; Paris Population, 401; Children, Employment, 415; Apprenticeship, 418; Prud'hommes, 433, 489; Livrets, 434; French Emperor, 435; Strikes, 437; Public Meetings Law, 439; Wages, 441; Industrial Classes, Report of 1863, 442; Artizans' Dwellings, 462; Cité Ouvrière, 463; Crèches, 467; Education, 467—473; Provident Institutions, 475; Marriage Law, 486; Political Rights, 487; Emigration, 489; Disaffection, 492.
Free Trade, Influence of, 15.
Friendly Societies, Belgium, 149.
Fuel, Gratuitous Gift of, 290.

"Genossenschaften," 526.
"Gewerke Vereine," 100.
Gothenburg Lodging-houses, 163.
Greece—Report, 406; Wages, 500; Holidays, 501.
Guilds, 211, 234, 526.

Hamburgh—Report, 11; Wages, 13; Lassalle System, 14; Free Trade, 15.
"Herbergen," 58.
Holidays, 144, 284, 501, 553.

Industrial Code, Prussia, 54, 101.
Intimidation, 572.
Italian Unions, 568.

Journeymen, 56.

Khans for Workmen, 232.

Labour Office, 213.
Land held by Artizans, 227.
Lassalle System, 14, 99, 207, 565.
Lima, School of Arts, 8.
Livrets, 434.
Lodgings, Swiss Society for, 287; Holland, 22; Spain, 312.

Marriages—France, 486
Meetings, French Law, 439
Miners, 146, 539.

Netherlands—Report, 16; Wages, 18; Dwellings, 20; Apprenticeship, 23; Combinations, 24; Clubs, 26.
North German Confederation—Report, 29; Emigration, 32; Agricultural Labour, 50; Industrial Code, 54, 101; Journeymen, 56; "Herbergen," 58; Apprentices, 59, 131; Employment of Women, 63; of Children, 63, 132; Dwellings, 74; Wages, 81; Schools, 95; Lassalle Doctrine, 99; Strikes, 100; "Gewerke Vereine," 100; Delitsch, 27; Education, 128; "Arbeitsbuch," 134.

Paris—Artizans' Dwellings, 462; Cité Ouvrière, 463.
Peru—Report, 2
Political Rights—France, 487; Austria, 538.

Portugal—Report, 150; Apprentices, 152; Trades' Unions, 152; Wages, 154.
"Positos" Institution, Spain, 316.
Proprietary Workshops, Workmen's, 214.
Protection in United States, 321.
Prud'hommes, 148, 433, 489.
Prussia, see "North German Confederation."

Refuge for Female Operatives, 212.

Savings' Banks, 359, 509.
Saxony—Report, 187; Wages, 193; Education, 204.
Schools—Prussia, 95.
Schultze-Delitsch, 97, 565, 567.
Sick Clubs, 211, 536, 552.
Spain—Report, 311; Wages, 312; "Positos" Institution, 316.
Strikes, 100, 224, 293, 368, 437, 507.
Sweden—Report, 158; Lodgings, 163; Wages, 168; Trades' Unions, 174; Emigration, 176; Children, 183.
Switzerland—Report, 270; Democracy, 271; Societies, 272; Education, 276; Wages, 285, 295; Lodgings, 287; Fuel Gifts, 290; Washing Establishments, 290; Strikes, 293; Holidays, 284.

Technical Education, 468.
Tenement-houses, 358.
Trades' Unions—Belgium, 152; Sweden, 174; United States, 363; Austria, 533, 563.
Trieste—Unions at, 568.

United States—Report, 317; Apprenticeship, 318; Wages, 319, 330; Prices, 320, 353; Protection, 321; California, 340; Artizans' Dwellings, 356; Tenement-houses, 358; Savings' Banks, 359; Trades' Unions, 363; Strikes, 368.

Wages, 14, 18, 81, 143, 154, 168, 193, 216, 235, 242, 285, 295, 306, 312, 319, 330, 340, 441, 500, 505, 520, 523.
Washing Establishments, 290.
Women, Employment, 63, 65, 268.
Wurtemberg—Report, 209; Guilds, 211; Sick Clubs, 211; Female Refuge, 212; Labour Office, 213; Artizans' Banks, 213; Artizans' Dwellings, 214; Wages, 216; Children's Employment, 222; Women's Employment, 268; Land held by Artizans, 227.

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